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The Impact of Community Service-Learning on Student Development, as Perceived by Student Leaders

Judith Starr Rauner EdD
University of San Diego

THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY SERVICE-LEARNING ON STUDENT DEVELOPMENT, AS PERCEIVED BY STUDENT LEADERS

by

Judith Starr Rauner

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Dissertation Committee

Mary Woods Scherr, Ph.D., Director
Johanna S. Hunsaker, Ph.D.
Elizabeth C. O'Connell, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

" The Impact of Community Service Leadership on Student Development, as Perceived by Student Leaders"

Since the mid-1980s, leaders in higher education have promoted the resurgence of student service linked with learning, but limited research exists on expectations or outcomes for these students or for the communities they serve. The literature review revealed that students' experiences of community service leadership had been a previously unexplored phenomenon. This study investigated the experiences of college students as community service leaders over a two-year period at two universities. According to data generated by four case studies, these leaders perceived significant personal changes in themselves as being different from changes they experienced when they volunteered. They grappled with their responses to societal problems and reflected on their relationships with people, of widely diverse cultures, whom they served. Participants improved communication and organizational skills while learning about societal issues and community agencies. Leaders examined their perceptions of those receiving service and also of the volunteers serving the community through university programs. Interpersonal relationships with other students as well as service recipients challenged leaders to reflect not only upon their own unrecognized stereotypes but also on their continued growth toward appreciating diversity. Leaders questioned the amount of influence or impact they had made on other students. Some discovered they preferred giving direct service instead of assuming program responsibility. Intense experiences of the participants affected their current and future decision-making about community

service commitments and careers, and also on what they read and discussed. Data for this study were gathered from archival sources, surveys, questionnaires, journals, and focus group interviews. Several differences existed between the two university programs; such as, the program longevity, funding sources, and student leader autonomy. Issues regarding community service program implementation emerged, including types and amount of advising given to community service leaders and agency receptivity to students giving service. Impact on both universities and the broader communities convinced student leaders that they could make a difference. Being a leader in university community service programs stimulated some participants to plan future community leadership; all felt challenged to assume responsibility as citizens in our complex world.

DEDICATION

To my family, each of whom has had unwavering faith in me: Tom, for his loving support and patience; Julie and Gustavo for cheering me on and giving us great joy as grandparents to Gustavito and Katherine; Mary for being a unique combination of dear friend and doctoral colleague; Mike for building my confidence and sense of humor; Steve for trusting and nurturing me as I joined his Santa Clara community.

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THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY SERVICE ON STUDENT DEVELOPMENT, AS PERCEIVED BY STUDENT LEADERS

The Issue

Early institutions of higher learning in our country made commitments to values education as a part of the liberal arts tradition. Founders of the first colleges hoped to prepare graduates for their public roles, to assume responsibilities for their communities, nation, and the larger world. Thomas Jefferson, mastermind of the University of Virginia, suggested a student "understand his duties to his neighbors and country, and to discharge with competence the functions confided to him by either" (Farland & Henry, 1992, p. 35). Contemporary university and college mission statements have continued to include citizenship and values development. Many emphasize giving service to the community.

Student community service expanded dramatically during the mid 1980s, although the relationship between citizenship development and community service has not been confirmed through research. Many leaders in higher education believed that volunteer experience prepared students for active citizenship (Boyer, 1987; Newmann, 1990; O'Connell, 1989). They encouraged the structured integration of community service with learning. Colleges and universities developed curricular and co-curricular programs, which furthered the resurgence of interest in youth community service. Grants for program expansion also fueled the national phenomenon.

Concerned leaders founded new organizations and existing groups expanded their commitment to student community involvement. Some examples include:

- The National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE) began in 1971 to support community service which integrated structured learning. The organization has seen a marked increase in members among faculty and administrators directly involved with such programs. A majority of recent NSEE annual conference workshops have addressed service-learning issues.
- A Harvard graduate spent several months in 1984 hiking from one northwestern campus to another learning about student community service programs. He found that much community service occurred and that students showed great interest in linking with one another. He began the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) in 1984. This became the national students' action organization for higher education community service and the sponsor of annual conferences attended by thousands of students.
- In 1985, over one hundred university and college presidents formed Campus Compact to encourage increased student community service. This coalition invited other presidents from across the nation to help counteract the *me generation* apathy, in which individuals showed more concern for self than community. Membership grew so rapidly that several states, including California, established state Compacts.

Student involvement in service to the community expanded through the integration of service into the curriculum and through co-curricular activities, including organizations and clubs which had long traditions of service. Undergraduate and graduate students began coordinating community service projects so other student volunteers could become involved in co-curricular service. Growing numbers of faculty members enriched their courses by

incorporating a community service component. For example, one professor required community service to help students integrate classroom learning about social problems with issues affecting people they met in the community.

Private foundations and recent national initiatives, including the Fund for Improving Post Secondary Education (FIPSE) and the National and Community Service Trust Act, offered competitive funding for universities and colleges to begin or expand community service opportunities. Congress allocated over $220 million dollars through the 1993 Trust Act for programs which included Serve and Learn grants for kindergarten through twelfth grade and higher education, and for post service education awards to Americorps members giving a minimum of one year of community service (The Corporation for National and Community Service, 1993). Grants from private foundations also provided incentives to develop innovative service programs. All funding sources required evaluation of program effectiveness. While funding sources and organization leaders often linked community service experience to enhanced learning and citizenship development, limited research has been done to confirm that there is a relationship between the two. Educators and funding sources wanted to know the impact of service-learning on those who received service, on the students, and on the universities and colleges.

NSEE sponsored a 1991 Wingspread conference and published the *Research Agenda for Combining Service and Learning in the 1990s*. The research agenda responded to educators' questions "about the relationship of student learning to social responsibility, increased citizen participation, and improved effectiveness in a global society" (Giles, Honnett, & Miglieore, 1991, p. 5). The general effects of service-learning on students' self perceptions, attitudes, behaviors, and responsiveness as citizens were among the research categories identified as both important and unexplored.

Recent guidelines for effective service-learning have provided a framework for both practice and research. The *Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service with Learning* (Honnett & Poulson, 1989) recommended working toward the common good and encouraged students to engage in reciprocal learning with those persons whom they serve. Researchers began to generate findings related to issues raised in both the *Research Agenda* and the *Principles of Good Practice.* The NSEE *Research Agenda* developed the following categories for research: the participant, the educational institution, the community, theoretical bases, and program models. Topics regarding participants included the effect of service-learning on individuals as students and as citizens.

Statement of the Problem

During the resurgence of community service, numerous college and university presidents, faculty, students, and professional staff have implemented service programs. Questions have surfaced regarding the effects of these programs. Some researchers addressed the NSEE research agenda by exploring what occurred for students who gave service to the community (Giles & Eyler, 1993) and the impact on students when community service was integrated into existing courses (Miller, 1994). I found no research or literature, however, specifically focused on students who assumed leadership roles in community service projects. Responding to one of the two broad thematic questions identified in the *Research Agenda*, "What is the effect of service-learning on intellectual, moral, and citizenship development of participants?" (Giles, Honnett & Miglieore, 1991, p. 9), this case study examined the effect of service-learning leadership on student development.

I first became interested in the effect of student community service leadership after I accepted a position at the University of San Diego which

included responsibility for expanding student volunteerism. During a period of rapid growth in USD's community service program, the experiences of students who coordinated projects appeared to be different from the experiences of student volunteers. Student leaders developed projects that enabled other students to respond to community needs. The paths students took toward project leadership and the scope of their responsibilities appeared to provide unique opportunities for personal development.

Community service leaders usually began as volunteers who often hesitated to accept a project coordinator role. Once they became leaders, they worked with projects involving school and agency service providers and service recipients from diverse cultures. Coordinators developed projects that responded to community needs as identified by the recipients, and they needed to communicate effectively and sensitively. While planning their projects with agency and school contact persons, they were exposed to the complex problems faced by persons from different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds.

Student leaders recruited volunteers and moved into relationships where the leaders influenced the volunteer's commitment, in part by sharing information about populations served and issues related to their service project. Through the orientations, the coordinators experienced being both learners and teachers. The reciprocal learning experiences of student leaders appeared to gain relevance when they received advising and other kinds of support from the university.

While fulfilling multiple roles during program development and implementation, student leaders needed to make complex judgments, often in situations involving ethical dilemmas. For example, the dilemma of confidentiality versus safety occasionally arose when volunteers tutored a

child under legal age. College mentors had been told that school counselors must be informed if a learner made any comments indicating he or she might harm himself, herself, or others. However, legal and ethical issues arose for the volunteers when the degree of seriousness could not be easily discerned. Student leaders had to understand liability issues and convince the volunteers that the university and agency guidelines must be followed. However, unplanned circumstances occurred when complex decisions needed to be made, but no clear guidelines existed.

Student leaders often interacted with people who believed they lacked power and lived in socio-economic situations that negatively impacted their lives. Many of these students began to think critically about their capability to influence other students toward making a difference in their community. One of the "Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning" (Honnett & Poulsen, 1989) stated "An effective program engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good." Trying to understand or define the common good provided new and overwhelming feelings when students tried to comprehend issues and look at complex needs for change faced by disenfranchised populations.

Anecdotal sharing during seminars offered to community service leaders at USD reinforced my perception that coordinating projects had an impact on these leaders. Their journals and personal statements indicated their experiences impacted them significantly. Students who assumed responsibility for coordinating community service projects appeared to change and to influence others as they dealt with issues related to social problems and values. Leaders discussed their strong commitments to volunteers and their intention to engage volunteers actively in a process of community change. The

impact of community service project leadership on these students emerged as a phenomenon worthy of further exploration.

The student leaders received guidance and preparation for their community service roles from a number of sources: university professional staff, each other, volunteers, and agency liaisons. University staff and experienced student leaders facilitated learning experiences and acted as advisors to new coordinators. Within one academic year, these new coordinators acquired crucial information to help them empower other students, meet real community needs through their projects, and optimize their own potential learning and growth. Since student leaders worked closely with agency and school personnel to establish community service projects, the effectiveness of these university-community liaisons deserved exploration.

In summary, research topics of interest to me that emerged during my work with community service project coordinators included investigating the changes that student leaders experienced and the types of support they found helpful. I concluded that the growth opportunities for university student leaders as they interacted with the community provided challenges beyond what students ordinarily experience.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the impact of community service leadership on student development. Participants in the study were asked to examine perceived changes within themselves in their ability to relate to others, in their perceptions of others, and in their responses to community issues. Their approaches to decision-making and moral judgment were also investigated.

Case studies focusing on the experiences of community service leaders in two university community service programs investigated how leadership

influenced the students' development. Students served as leaders within the university as they recruited and supported volunteers, and within the nonprofit and public sectors, where they developed service placements and worked closely with agency staff to facilitate student community service. The following research questions helped me focus on students leaders' perceptions about their community service experiences.

Research Questions

1. In what ways did students perceive they changed as a result of their community service experience?
2. How did student leaders respond to and learn from their interactive relationships with other students, with those people who received service, and with community agency or school liaisons?
3. To what extent did interaction with persons from diverse cultures within the community service project environments shape new insights or behaviors?
4. Could any connection be made between the community service experience and change in moral judgment?
5. Was there evidence that students changed their approaches to decision making, including decisions relating to citizenship?
6. What types of support did students identify as reinforcing their learning and development process?

I explored these questions through four case studies within community service programs, one case study each year at two universities, during a two-year time period. Student leaders from the community service programs shared their perceptions about the impact of their experiences and the effectiveness of support they received through surveys, questionnaires, journals or reflection papers, and interviews. I drew comparative analyses

from the case studies by first analyzing data from each case study, then identifying commonalties and differences in how students perceived they changed.

Since student-led projects took place within their respective communities, the interaction of students with the community agency or school staff needed to be considered. Agency or school contact persons provided necessary information and assistance only they could give to the students. Due to the recent increase in the number of student volunteers, it seemed important to examine the history, staffing patterns, and structures of the nonprofit sector in order to improve understanding of the community context where student leaders helped other students volunteer.

Theoretical Framework

No theory or research specifically linking university community service leadership with student development could be located; however, I found theories regarding values and citizenship education in higher education connected to community service. Student and adult development theories provided foundation for the research questions related to students' personal and moral development. Since the participants in this study assumed responsibilities that provided opportunities for leadership, theories of leadership were also explored.

Student community service leaders bridged the university and the larger community. Because these leaders functioned in both environments, I drew the theoretical framework for this study from the literature and research on higher education and on the nonprofit sector. Although the goals of values education and citizenship development evident in higher education did not appear in nonprofit literature, both higher education and nonprofit authors attempted to define citizenship and to link citizenship and community service.

Relevant to this study, student and adult development theorists described processes where an individual moved from a focus on oneself toward acting upon a concern for others. I reviewed theories and research on general leadership and leadership within contexts of higher education and the nonprofit sector for this study.

The literature review focused on two arenas: the university and the community where student leaders interacted with agency personnel, and those persons receiving service. The following topics provided a theoretical framework for this study.

Table 1.

Topics in the literature review

Student community service leaders serve as bridges between The university - - - - - - - - and - - - - - - - - -The community	Nonprofit & public sector
Citizenship & community service	*Citizenship & community service*
Student development	*Adult development & community responsibility*
Theories on student leadership	*General leadership theories & non profit leadership*

Authors in the higher education field discussed values and citizenship development. The concept of citizenship, its definition and demonstration, appeared in both nonprofit and higher education contexts. Citizenship often referred to the actions of persons who assumed some responsibility for the good of the community; however, references to voting appeared as a primary citizenship responsibility more often than statements that linked citizenship and community service. Drucker described nonprofit organizations as a

potential "sphere of meaningful citizenship" (1989, p. 205) where persons from the community could become involved. In academia, the National Commission on the Role and Future of State Colleges and Universities promoted the idea that students should learn about citizenship (Swift, 1990). Boyte (1991) and Cirone (1987) also suggested service experience was vital for citizenship development of students. A recent Kettering Foundation report (Farland & Henry, 1992) proposed four approaches colleges might use to educate for democratic citizenship. The report stated that in addition to development of intellectual vigor and deliberative skills, students learned through participating in campus activities and through giving service to the community.

Student development theory and research indicated that isolating the impact of any single component from the total impact of college is difficult (Astin, 1985). However, shifts in students' skills, self knowledge, and awareness of issues appeared among the compiled change indicators in Pascarella & Terenzini's secondary studies on student development and moral development (1991).

Several theorists identified moral responsibility and commitment to the community as signposts of adult development (Gilligan, 1982; Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberg, Tarule, 1986). Some development theorists specifically associated moral development with the maturation process of young people (Kohlberg, 1976; Rest, 1986; Gibbs, Basinger, Fuller, 1992). They subscribed to the belief that a person moves through stages toward maturity, with the approaches to making ethical decisions as key indicators of change. This study examined moral judgment as one possible dimension of student development, since students who assumed responsibility for community service projects often needed to make judgments with moral dimensions.

While no specific mention of community service leadership appeared in higher education literature, Astin (1993) stated that student leadership abilities grew with involvement in university clubs and organizations. General leadership theories related to the experiences of participants in this study because they engaged in relationships with others and intended to influence change they perceived as being significant. Rost (1993) stated that leaders and collaborators engage in reciprocal relationships and work toward significant, intended change.

This study focused on relationship dimensions of leadership theory, particularly regarding multicultural awareness, because the student leaders worked with diverse groups of people. Wurzel (1988) believed individuals move from their monocultural awareness to potential conflicts when they interact with other cultures. He stated that a person must first become self-aware and then be able to learn about others, moving through disequilibrium toward awareness and an integration of cultural knowledge within their particular world view. Although changes may have negative affect, changes in cross-cultural awareness offered potential indicators of students' growth.

Literature from the nonprofit sector addressed leadership from a different perspective. The positions traditionally held by volunteer leaders in nonprofit organizations rested in the roles of individuals such as board members or core organizers in grass roots organizations. As the numbers of volunteers increased, those who were coordinating volunteers worked to professionalize these positions (Ellis & Noyes, 1990). Recent research on the effectiveness of both volunteer and paid leaders working in volunteer programs received mixed reviews. Some research indicated agency procedures constrained flexibility and creativity of volunteers (Carlsen, 1991; Ilsley, 1990). The nonprofit literature showed paid professional staff took a

predominantly management-oriented approach to working with volunteers. The amount of leadership opportunity that existed for volunteers within traditional non-profit organizations became unclear. To some extent, the type of volunteer management of the community setting determined an individual's potential for leadership opportunities.

Many leadership theorists discussed the importance of leadership training (Rost, 1991; Senge, 1990; Starratt, 1993). Some authors believed a strong link of community service to learning opportunities made the outcome for students more meaningful (Stanton, 1990; Barber, 1994). I linked theoretical foundations regarding values education, citizenship development, student and adult development, and leadership to the perceptions shared by participants in the study.

Methodology

The two sites chosen for case studies shared similar size, type of university, and structure of the community service programs. Both provided leadership training for student leaders. Differences related to the link between service and learning and to the advising support. One university had limited curricular link while the other had direct connections to the curriculum in several projects. At one university, experienced student leaders provided almost all of the training and advising support to project coordinators. At the other, student leaders received considerable staff advising and could enroll in a "Leadership through Volunteerism" seminar offered by the School of Education and facilitated by the staff.

The multiple case studies examined how community service leadership impacted student development. I used a number of methods to gather information directly from participants in the study: surveys, questionnaires, journal or reflection papers, and interviews. This study depended heavily upon

the student leaders' descriptions of how community service affected them. Participants shared their perceptions of changes in themselves related to their community service leadership. Two questionnaires, the Defining Issues Test and the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory, generated descriptive statistics on moral decision-making and cross cultural adaptability.

Assumptions

Some of the assumptions I made within this study included:

- Community service experiences in universities that link with learning opportunities stimulate reciprocal learning among those providing service and those receiving it.
- Community service-learning needs to empower the recipients of service toward self-sufficiency.
- The understanding of and responsiveness toward diverse populations is crucial for effective leadership.
- A leader's decision-making and moral judgment consider the common good.
- Typically, the amount of time spent in community service-learning experiences is directly proportional to the number of opportunities for learning and growth.
- Individual volunteers have different levels of interest and readiness for community service experiences due to time availability, exposure to volunteer opportunities, and his or her personal development. Student leaders should reflect their awareness of and responsiveness to these differences in how they recruit, train, support, and respect the uniqueness of each volunteer.
- A community service coordinator will have opportunities for leadership during his or her experience; management responsibilities demand significant attention at the beginning.

- Student leaders benefit from the support and continuity offered through advising and leadership development opportunities.
- Student leadership opportunities may be limited by the organizational constraints of the volunteer project setting.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions will clarify the terms as used in this study.

Citizenship refers to a person's action that contributes toward responsibility for the common good. Civic education prepares persons to assume responsibilities to their community as citizens.

The common good is "the general welfare, what is best and most advantageous for a country, community, or group as a whole" (Cowie, Mackin, & McCaig, 1983, p. 112).

Community service programs and projects refer in this study to the structured and collaborative efforts to encourage student volunteerism. The community service program refers to the inclusive efforts made by students to serve the community. The term project indicates service in a contained place or places with a specific focus; for example, a literacy project.

Cultural adaptability, or cross-cultural adaptability, is the potential a person has for sensitivity and effectiveness in relating to persons from cultures other than his or her own. Culture, defined in the broadest sense, encompassed ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, age, and other determinants influencing how people perceive, believe and act. Loden and Rosener differentiated between primary and secondary dimensions of diversity. Primary dimensions were "immutable human differences that are inborn and/or exert an important impact" (1991, p. 19) which included age, ethnicity, gender, physical abilities and qualities, race, and sexual and affectional orientation. The secondary dimensions, those that can change, consisted of

educational background, geographic location, income, marital status, military experience, parental status, religious beliefs, and work experience.

A community service leader or coordinator defines a student chosen to coordinate a project and engage other students in action that responds to community needs. The leaders performed a wide spectrum of management functions and had some opportunities for leadership. In this study, the terms leader and coordinator were used interchangeably because the community service programs defined the students as coordinators.

Influence refers to the impact or effect that student leaders have on student volunteers or other persons with whom they interact.

Leadership, as used in this study, occurs when a leader engages and influences collaborators in reciprocal learning relationships to develop a mutual purpose and to work together toward intended change. The experiences of student project coordinators focus on relationships with other students who volunteer for projects that potentially make change toward the common good.

Moral development was defined by Kohlberg as a cognitive-developmental approach that "involves transformation of cognitive structure" (1981, p. 98) in a universally relevant criterion of moral reasoning.

Moral judgment involves abilities to interpret a situation, decide upon possible actions, make a judgment, and intend to do what is right (Rest, 1986).

A nonprofit organization is identified as separate from a profit or public organization usually by virtue of having a 501(c3) tax exempt status. Drucker (1990) described the nonprofit organization as existing "to bring about a change in individuals and society (p. 3). . . .(and) it attempts to become a part of the recipient rather than merely a supplier" (p. 53). Other terms used to describe the nonprofit sector include the independent sector or the Third Sector.

Student development theories refer to basic assumptions regarding how students grow and develop during their collegiate experience, including intellectual, emotional, and social development and the relationship among student characteristics. (Barr, Upcraft & Assc., 1990, p. 45).

Volunteerism occurs when persons volunteer, acting by choice "in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit, going beyond one's basic obligations" (Ellis and Noyes, 1990, p. 4). The term volunteerism appeared most frequently in the nonprofit sector, while community service was preferred in higher education to describe efforts that benefited recipients of service and met community needs. The term community service also related to court-initiated service as an optional way for a person to make restitution. Community service linked to learning, commonly termed service-learning in educational settings, incorporated structured opportunities for learners to think critically about social problems while responding actively to those problems. In addition to giving direct service, volunteering or community service included advocacy, when a person's actions address and impact policies. Philanthropy describes giving financial or human resources in response to community needs.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Colleges and universities often proclaim values development as an institutional mission that prepares students as future citizens. Recently, leaders in higher education have closely linked university community service to this mission of citizenship preparation (Newmann, 1990; Oliver, 1989; Rubin, 1990). Students who coordinate community service projects serve as bridges between the institutions of higher learning and nonprofit organizations. This connection between higher education and the nonprofit sector made it appropriate to review the literature in both arenas.

Table 2.

Topics in the literature review

Student community service leaders serve as bridges between The university - - - - - - - - and - - - - - - - - -The community Nonprofit & public sector)	
Citizenship & community service	*Citizenship & community service*
Student development	*Adult development & community responsibility*
Theories on student leadership	*General leadership theories & non profit leadership*

The relevant topics which relate to higher education and the nonprofit sector are: (a) *citizenship and community service*; includes definitions of

citizenship, the historic mandate and context of values development in higher education, the history of nonprofit volunteerism, and the relationship of community service to citizenship; (b) *student and adult development* in reference to community responsibility; and (c) *leadership theories* and the connections to citizenship. The higher education section includes discussions of research gaps regarding student community service.

Citizenship and Community Service

First, the question "*what is citizenship?*" needed to be asked. Citizenship action was defined traditionally by its connection with voting rights or, in the most general sense, as the "the character of being an individual viewed as a member of society" (Webster's College Dictionary, 1991, p. 248). Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton broadened that description to be a:

> Generosity of spirit (as) the ability to acknowledge an interconnectedness - one's debts to society - that binds one to others whether one wants to accept it or not. It is also the ability to engage in the caring that nurtures that interconnectedness. It is a virtue that everyone should strive for. . .a conception of citizenship that is still alive in America (1985, p. 194).

Other definitions existed in literature from higher education and the nonprofit sector--the contexts in which students prepared to assume their roles as citizens. The recommitment to citizenship development in higher education includes direct community service as one approach to learning about citizen's responsibilities.

Citizenship and Community Service: Higher Education

After examining some definitions of citizenship, I summarized the history of citizenship development in higher education. The literature review regarding university community service encompassed theory, how theory has

been put into practice, and what existing research exists on student development and leadership.

Defining Citizenship

Early in this century, educator John Dewey (1926), defined citizenship as an indication of individuals' capacities to "judge men and measures wisely and to take a determining part in making as well as obeying laws" (p. 140). Through a survey on student perceptions related to citizenship, academicians Gross and Dynneson (1991) developed an operational definition of a citizen as one who "cares about the welfare of others, is moral and ethical in his dealing with others, is able to challenge and critically question ideas, proposals and suggestions, and, in light of existing circumstances, is able to make good choices based upon good judgment" (p. 4). Boyer (1987) moved his definition beyond the individual to a group responsibility where well-informed people "band together in the spirit of community to learn from one another, to participate, as citizens, in the democratic process" (p. 280).

History of Citizenship as an Emphasis in Higher Education

A strong tradition of building civic responsibility existed during the first centuries of college experience in America. The curricula in early American colleges focused on a liberal education linked to citizen development. Educators sought to influence community by using "virtue and wisdom enough to manage the concerns of society" (O'Neil, 1990, p. 191). Building on this theme, Jefferson envisioned each generation of citizens as "deciding together their fate and governance" (Farland & Henry, 1992, iii).

The two hundred year focus on learning civic virtues shifted in the mid-19th century, when the Morrell Act instituted more universal access to higher education through large land grant colleges and later in the century when research universities began to thrive. During the twentieth century,

universities grew, diversified, and became more bureaucratic which caused segmentation of collegiate life and diminished the role of civic education (Oliver, 1989).

Historically, college mission statements advocated an ideal of developing values as preparation for good citizenship (Rubin, 1990; Barber, 1994). During the mid 1980s, leaders in higher education reaffirmed their institutions' commitment to values education and called increasingly for students to develop insights and exercise influence as future citizens. Boyer (1984) argued that students needed to gain perspective and "see the connectedness of things, an insight that touches the very foundation of morality" (p. 10). Bok (1988) also reinforced the goal of values education by stating that colleges and universities had an "obligation to try to help... students understand how to lead ethical, reflective, fulfilling lives" (p. 50). The ultimate purpose of education, added Newmann, was to prepare students to exercise influence in public affairs, as the "main task for the democratic public citizen. . .to deliberate with other citizens about the nature of the public good and how to achieve it" (1990, p. 76).

As interest in values development increased, higher education leaders referred to the book, *Habits of the Heart* (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1986). This book drew attention to Americans' individualism and the absence of communal commitment and moral vision. The role of universities and colleges became a focus for these issues, reasoning that students needed to develop insights and to assume community responsibility. Stanley (1993) put citizen education into this context:

> Higher education is about the past, present and future. It compels a certain orientation to the human experience. It celebrates and identifies

change as a part of all societies in the past and to come. And, it attempts to morally evaluate the direction of change. (p. 61)

Strom and Stoskopf (1989) more specifically tied community service to educating for citizenship stating "If the young of our nation are not exposed to a rigorous and comprehensive study of the voluntary tradition, the future of the Third Sector is at risk" (p. 438). The term citizenship has appeared frequently in recent literature addressing the role of higher education.

Community Service in Contemporary Higher Education

Contemporary discussion about community service expanded beyond theory to include both practice and research. Professors, program administrators, and students generated curricular and co-curricular programs incorporating service and learning opportunities, commonly referred to as community service-learning. Students founded new organizations and existing groups increased their commitment to service-learning. In addition, university presidents initiated Campus Compact. Researchers also began to publish findings related to community service-learning.

Faculty and program administrators. Faculty and administrative supporters of experiential learning began national level collaboration in 1971 and initiated what is now the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE). This organization began sponsoring annual conferences that provided forums for those interested in studying experiential education and publishing journals, position papers, and books. Service-learning and citizenship became strong foci in conference workshops and authors grappled with the theoretical and practical implications of community service and civic responsibility.

Duley (1981) identified one goal of field experience education as helping students to "become responsible citizens: develop a firsthand understanding of the political and social action skills required for active citizenship" (p. 602).

Service alone did not connect students to the political process or teach public judgment. Without a structure, according to Boyte (1991), volunteers were less apt to reflect on issues of power, race, and class. Problem-solving in civic education, Boyte (1993) believed, involved:

> values such as respect for human dignity and different points of view, an openness to the long-term, a willingness to think of one's own particular interests in light of the needs of the whole. . . .(and) learning a constellation of concepts and the translation of concepts into effective public action (64).

Stanton (1990a) addressed the complexity of contemporary issues and the greater need for citizens to think critically, then concluded that a combination of action and reflection linked the traditions of liberal arts education and community service. He identified faculty members as key to incorporating service experience with learning. Faculty joined with professional staff to study if and how service-learning contributed to the personal growth of students. Faculty, according to Stanley (1989), should be encouraged to use experiential learning to help students develop practical wisdom, integrate cognitive skills, and discover neighbors as human beings.

Academicians explored ways to prepare students for citizenship. For example, Newmann (1990) generated approaches to citizenship instruction in the areas of history, political science, social sciences, education, and law. He included community service as the only co-curricular approach. Social scientists Gross and Dynneson (1991) discussed contributions in a variety of disciplines, including: the social psychology perspective encompassing the study of individual behavior; the anthropological focus on how citizenship education takes place in a culture; and the philosophical exploration of "the knowledge and practice of criticism and the search for meaning" (p. 196). In

addition to academic contributions toward citizenship education, these authors also identified forms of citizen participation: voting, campaigning, protesting, communicating to those in office, and organizing others on political issues. They did not include community service as an experiential approach to learning or as citizen action.

Some saw education for social responsibility as being strictly curricular, but many others perceived service-learning as providing new opportunities for collaboration among faculty members and student affairs professionals (Barr et al., 1990). The connection between volunteering and understanding issues became integral in both curricular and co-curricular areas. In addition to faculty and professional staff initiatives, students made commitments and assumed leadership for community involvement.

Students. A resurgence of student activism occurred in the 1960s. Highly organized volunteer efforts expanded to state schools in addition to the private institutions which more traditionally encouraged student involvement in the community. On the federal level, ACTION's National Student Volunteer Program (NSVP) provided support to programs and published a journal, Synergist. A survey of approximately 2,000 colleges and universities during the 1973-74 academic year found that students provided an estimated 23 million hours of community service (Kates, 1974, p. 16).

The Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) began in 1984 through the efforts of a Harvard graduate who mobilized students throughout the country. The organization strongly promoted student leadership on individual campuses through site visits and annual conferences. Students also initiated national level movements, such as the Student Coalition for Action in Literacy Education (SCALE) and Teach for America. Two students co-chaired a Vanderbilt Alternative Spring Break that focused on community service.

They began receiving requests for information and, in collaboration with COOL, published a manual for use at other campuses. In 1991, the Vanderbilt students secured funding and founded Break Away, established contact at over 700 schools, sponsored national conferences, and developed an alternative spring break grant project (Mann, 1994). Young People for National Service (YPFNS) participated actively in the development of the National and Community Service Trust Act and established a network of over 1500 members.

University presidents, national organization spokespersons. A call for citizen education came from the National Commission on the Role and Future of State Colleges and Universities, to introduce students to ". . .the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy" (Swift, 1990, p. 1). In response to the national discussion about student individualism, over one hundred university presidents formed the Campus Compact in 1985. This organization put values education into action through students' active community service involvement that linked with learning and provided a context for understanding value-based issues.

Campus Compact member Malloy (1990) argued that persons in colleges and universities analyzed social issues more effectively when they engaged in advocacy. However, activating concern for social justice demanded structured experiences, discussion, and reflection. Morse (1990) stated "the evolution of thinking and judging is the courage to act" (p. 229) and this is a key for campuses to promote civic skills and civic responsibility. He thought students needed preparation to think about difficult political problems along with other citizens. Student action, including community service and political process experiences, helped students learn skills but didn't necessarily prepare students to discern the public good, Newmann added (1990).

Presidents, faculty, and other administrators who advocated for service-learning agreed that reflection, the structured opportunity to critically reexamine service experience, built authentic discourse and personal civic commitment (Malloy, 1990; Stanton, 1990a; Honnet & Poulsen, 1989). University presidents and other leaders addressed the role of colleges and universities relative to the potential outcomes of service. Researchers also focused on why students initially became involved and they began to look at outcomes for students who actively addressed community needs.

Researchers and theorists. Giles & Eyler (1994) called for both theory and research development as a necessary framework for service-learning, a "systematic way of generating and organizing our knowledge" (p. 78). They discussed Dewey's educational philosophy and social philosophy as linking experiential learning and citizenship, using reflective thinking. The nine areas for service-learning theory development and testing that they developed included citizenship as a category. They asked, "Can involvement in inquiry-focused service-learning lead to a commitment to citizenship?" (p. 83).

Although not using the term citizenship, civic education appeared as a category in the theory and research review compiled by Pascarella and Terenzini (1991). They identified the development of social and political attitudes and values as one of their research analysis areas on the impact of college on students.

Surveys were developed to predict which students might volunteer and to learn the motivations of those who did volunteer. Community service participants, in a study done by Serow (1991), placed no significant value on social justice or equality. This coincided with Boyte's (1991) observation that students saw service as an alternative to politics while adults perceived service as a renewal of civic responsibility. Boyte (1993) advocated that "the

aim of civic education should be to develop student's capacities to act with effect and with public spirit in a diverse, turbulent public world made up of multiple and fractured communities" (p. 63).

Smith (1994) discovered a disparity between the perceptions of students and the expectation that community service fostered understanding of citizenship. The first part of her qualitative study generated twelve categories of expected effects from service-learning, one being citizenship. However, only one student articulated the word citizen during later focus group interviews. When the researcher posed the theme of citizenship, students failed to perceive a relationship between it and service. Smith concluded that institutions needed to develop strategies to connect citizenship and service-learning. Rutgers University developed one approach through a model Civics Education course where students "learn the meaning of social interdependence and become empowered through acquiring the democratic arts" (Barber, 1994, p. 88) with a requirement of service. The program taught the art of citizenship and acting upon it through a strong experiential learning focus.

Student community service generated a variety of outcomes, including effects on those giving and receiving service. The increased incorporation of service-learning in clinical experience, internships, and courses made additional structure necessary within institutions of higher education and in community agencies and schools. Nonprofit and public sector spokespersons also discussed citizenship and the connection to community service, more commonly termed volunteerism in the nonprofit literature.

Citizenship and Community Service: The Nonprofit Sector

Citizens contributed to their communities and addressed issues throughout the history of our country. As social structures changed, so did the roles of volunteers and the outcomes for them. This section reviewed the

meanings and implications of citizenship within the nonprofit sector, including the contemporary context for volunteers. National organizations and leaders within the volunteer sector recognized implications for agencies and schools in accommodating the influx of student volunteers.

Defining Citizenship

The term "citizen" linked with volunteerism when Cohen (1960) defined a citizen volunteer as "one who assumes voluntarily and without pay his obligations of citizenship" (p. *x*). Drucker (1989) took a practical approach when he challenged nonprofit organizations to create a "sphere of meaningful citizenship" (p. 205) for volunteers who exercised their roles as citizen by serving the community through agency programs. Agencies were challenged by Mansur and Cass (1976) to utilize citizen volunteers "to promote or advance some aspect of the common good, as this good is perceived by the persons participating in it" (p. 14). They saw volunteers as persons who helped to define the common good. Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler and Tipton (1985) described the public or common good as the sum of private benefits that helped make public life enjoyable, not feared.

The nonprofit sector literature focused on preparing the agencies to manage volunteers' experiences, so citizens could help determine and contribute to the common good. Both academic and the nonprofit authors rethought the education process for citizenship through community service, the term more generally used in academia, or volunteerism, as used in the nonprofit sector. Just as the history of citizenship development in higher education helped shape the current thrust for community service, the history of volunteerism influenced roles of volunteers, including students.

History of Nonprofit Volunteerism

The history of volunteerism in America traces back to cooperative efforts of neighbors helping one another to build houses and barns, to self-government that depended upon persons willing to voluntarily share responsibilities, and to group involvement through associations that Tocqueville found in New England townships. Political advocacy took place throughout our history, including events like the 1848 Seneca Falls convention when women claimed full citizenship and then built organizations to work toward womens' rights as citizens (Evans, 1989).

During the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth centuries, volunteers initiated and often ran organizations serving community needs for education, health, and human care services. As professional staff assumed responsibility for health and human service agency management, the roles of volunteers became more limited. Community members also supported the arts, schools, churches and synagogues both fiscally and by serving on boards.

Participatory democracy of the 1960s bewildered old-time volunteers because a power structure change occurred, moving away from the perceived dominant involvement of economically advantaged persons toward involvement of everyone. O'Connell (1976) expressed concern that efforts to control activism through federal or agency regulations could restrict freedom and then limit peaceful participation in reform. Mansur (1976) conjectured that as alienation and apathy grew because of restrictions, citizens would feel they lacked the ability to influence decisions and processes.

Contemporary Context for Volunteers

Cohen (1960) encouraged nonprofit organizations to bring individuals into the democratic process through volunteers helping to develop policy and giving service to those in need. He thought this involvement could provide

channels for individuals to test and to learn about the democratic process, because volunteers who interacted with service recipients would be more likely to become interested in the issues causing human need. Agencies and organizations expanded opportunities for volunteers in the 1960s, in part because funding sources required community participation.

Broader contemporary visions of volunteers as citizens were seen as possible when citizens thought in terms of the public good and kept a generosity of spirit and interconnectedness to society. Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler and Tipton (1985) saw politics as "making operative the moral consensus of the community" (p. 200) by neighbors working for the good of the community, by interest groups meeting their needs or wants, and by persons exercising statesmanship where the national life transcended particular interests. Voluntary action could help people build "habits of the heart," according to Van Til (1988), where by understanding society and engaging in problem solving and social reform, people would continue to serve their communities. Drucker (1989) described a volunteer counterculture that developed among volunteers who shared values and a distinct ethos which created "active and effective citizenship" (p. 176) in the context of Third Sector nonprofit institutions where volunteers contributed meaningfully as citizens.

While some authors felt optimistic about the nonprofit sectors' capacity to empower volunteers as citizens, questions also arose about the effectiveness of volunteer involvement. A mid-1970s Department of Housing and Urban Development study of citizen participation revealed that people perceived basic democratic responsibilities as relating to voting, jury duty, and pecuniary, much narrowed from the earlier, expansive citizen obligation (Luck, 1976). Other authors questioned why limited or negative expectations had developed, including Seaver (1976) who stated that diverse communities had

no common voice and represented a limited range of interest even when they organized their efforts. Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt (1979), began to question whether individuals or groups felt they could renew democracy, although they saw clear trends that volunteerism could contribute toward renewal.

Gittel (1980) represented another view that centralization and professionalism of nonprofit and government organizations limited the potential for citizen participation. He identified constraints on the participation of lower class groups due to their limited networks and preoccupation with survival. Wolch (1990) recognized an additional dilemma caused by increased dependence on government funding, which placed voluntary groups under constraints of public purposes. With efficiency and accountability as watchwords, he expressed concern that the nonprofit sector could become puppets of the government.

On a more practical level, concerns arose about agencies' capacity to accommodate the influx of student volunteers. Staff in nonprofit agencies and schools faced already overburdening responsibilities, so an influx of students needing orientation, supervision, and evaluation added to their already packed schedules. Saunders (1990) identified a philosophical disparity between educators and the nonprofit sector regarding student volunteers. Educators advocated teaching values of caring through community service within the curriculum. National legislation promoted service through incentives, including tuition credits through programs like the Student Literary Corps. However, nonprofit leaders emphasized the importance of volunteerism as free choice. They believed individuals who chose to become involved in issues realize that one person can make a difference. According to Saunders, collaboration among voluntary agencies, the government, and educators needed to occur for student community service to be successful.

In summary, both nonprofit and higher education spokespersons interrelated action and issues, service with learning. Some agencies and organizations encouraged volunteers to provide direct service, but no consensus emerged among authors and researchers regarding the effectiveness of service as citizen preparation. While students identified why they chose to volunteer without considering the full impact the experience might offer, higher education leaders focused proactively on how community service experiences might effect students as future citizens and in their personal development process.

Student and Adult Development

The question of why some people become involved in political and social issues while others do not was raised by Berman (1990). A number of student and adult development theorists have addressed the connection between personal development and service given to the community. The development theory literature in this chapter explored citizen responsibility as influencing individual personal development and citizen actions as signposts of development.

Student Development and Change Theories

Researchers investigated the impact of community service involvement on students through the lenses of psychosocial and cognitive development, college impact, and motivation theories. Student development theories differed from college impact or change theories in that change was a value-free term, according to Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) and development was not.

Development implied a systematic, successive, adaptive function that presumed student growth or the potential for growth. Psychosocial development theories included identity formation and cognitive-structural development theories and described the "process of change, concentrating on

the cognitive structures individuals construct in order to give meaning to their worlds" (p. 27). College impact theories explored the changes occurring within students throughout their college experience, as individuals related to institution characteristics. Motivation theories related to this study because participants identified their perceived reasons for volunteering.

Psychosocial and Cognitive-Structural Development Models

The final stages in psychosocial models addressed ways students looked at their larger world and how they responded to issues. As one example, Chickering's (1993) seventh vector of student development focused on development of integrity described as "not only increased congruence between behavior and values, but also movement toward responsibility for self and others and the consistent ability to thoughtfully apply ethical principles" (p. 236).

The formation of student character has been a research focus based largely on cognitive-structural theories in terms of reasoning and not how students behaved. Perry and Kohlberg, as cognitive-structural developmentalists, theorized that students used new information to challenge their existing cognitive structure. They perceived that a series of constructions and reconstructions helped an individual to reform knowledge, attitudes, values and self-concepts. Perry (1981) initially described nine positions of cognitive and intellectual growth in his model, then later clustered them into three categories. The third cluster, relativism, involved commitments where a student could "fight for my values yet respect others, believe my deepest values right yet be ready to learn" (p. 79).

Cognitive-structural theorists perceived that young individuals made initial moral choices by accepting authority and grew to levels where they thought for themselves while considering others. Their research focused on

how people made decisions, assuming that their behaviors reflected their choices. Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development provided the basis for James Rest's "Defining Issues Test," the questionnaire used in this study. Consequently, a summary of Kohlberg's theory and the major issues and conflicts that surrounded the moral judgment theory was pertinent.

Kohlberg's theory and the Defining Issues Test. Followers and critics agreed Lawrence Kohlberg followed Piaget in initiating and exploring developmental psychology related to moral judgment and action. Kohlberg (1984) influenced a shift in the approach to values education and his generativity model became the basis of theoretical conjecture and the foundation for thousands of research efforts. Critics challenged his work, yet they admitted that their challenges weakened because no alternative models existed.

Kohlberg's theories presented an empirical development of moral thinking based on philosophical "moral principles as the logical, natural climax of cognitive maturation" (Sullivan, 1986, p. 122). The research Kohlberg (1984) developed into theory was grounded in a cognitive-developmental approach and based on assumptions that basic development involved the cognitive structure being transformed as the result of interaction between the structure of organisms and the environment. These cognitive structures were directed toward gaining equilibrium in an organism-environment interaction, which was congruent with the stage theory development of Piaget.

The six moral stages of Kohlberg (1986) divided into three levels: preconventional, conventional, and post-conventional, or principled. Two stages initially existed within each level, with first and second stages being an egocentric view of "heteronomous morality" and individualism. Stage Three moved to "mutual interpersonal expectations, relationships, and interpersonal

conformity" or living up to what others expected. Social system and conscience embodied the fourth stage, in which a person differentiated between the societal point of view and the interpersonal. The post-conventional level shifted from Stage Five, social contract, and Stage Six, universal ethical principles, to Stage Five and Five and one-half after Kohlberg no longer claimed the existence of Stage Six, calling it "a matter of theoretical and philosophic speculation" (Kohlberg, Levine, & Hewer, 1983, p. 8).

Kohlberg based the moral stages on assumptions that stages could not be skipped and individuals could not regress back to a lower stage. Frieberg (1986) stated that judgment was the most important factor in Kohlberg's model of moral behavior, with justice being the zenith of moral growth. Critics questioned Kohlberg's theory based on justice as the universal value and charged that his research was gender biased.

The charge of gender bias in Kohlberg's theory commanded significant attention. From her studies on women, Gilligan (1982) theorized that women's moral dilemmas emerged because responsibilities conflicted, as opposed to the dilemma of males who perceived competing rights. Her research indicated that when confronted by an ethical dilemma, girls tended to make decisions based on caring and responsibility while boys tended to make decisions based on justice and rights (Smith, 1985). This placed girls in Stage Three, which indicated that a person who made a moral judgment based on gentleness and awareness of feeling was considered to have deficiency in moral development (Evans, 1985), according to the moral judgment stage theory. Kohlberg's early work did show girls or women at lower stages, but later he "partially accepted Gilligan's differentiation of two orientations in moral judgment" (Kohlberg, Levin, Hewer, 1983). However, Kohlberg maintained his position that the justice orientation was a higher stage of development. Rest (1986) maintained

that no significant gender bias was present in the research models using Kohlberg's theory "since the amount of variance accounted for by sex differences is so trivial, it would seem that other variables present a much more promising avenue for investigation to researchers" (p. 116).

Bloom's (1990) literature review focused on the usefulness of Gilligan's position for both interpretation and future research. He reported that both men and women seemed to be searching for ways to combine justice orientation and care orientation. The basic elements of a transcendent ethic included the value of the individual and the need for community and "no such ethic can be created on a foundation that either eliminates or minimizes the perspective of half of humanity" (p. 252).

Kohlberg (1986) developed stages that placed justice as the highest and most generalizable value, yet neither reliability or predictability tests supported that claim. While he acknowledged the dependence and loyalty that men and women had for each other, the connections between this interdependence and his denial of common purpose remained ambiguous. Sullivan (1986) questioned how the dimensions of reflection used in Kohlberg's moral reasoning could be separated from "the actual patterns of life within which the reasoner lives" (p. 149). Citizenship, as defined by Sullivan and others, had a moral foundation of cooperation toward a common good. That appeared to be an antithesis to Kohlberg's liberal individualism and of autonomous justice as the universal value.

Kohlberg used interview techniques, through his Moral Judgment Interview (MJI), that helped the researcher to understand the perspective of a person being interviewed. Both Kohlberg and Habermas made the controversial assumption that it was possible to be objective and value-neutral, then to build toward theory (Carter, 1985).

Other researchers developed instruments and research approaches based on the Kohlberg stage theory. Sapp (1986) described James Rest's Defining Issues Test (DIT) as redefining the Kohlberg semi-structured interview system into simpler and more objective measures of moral judgment. Kohlberg (1984) also credited Rest with setting the stage for a "myriad of studies in social, developmental and personality psychology as they bear upon the moral judgment-action relationship" (p. 539). Pascarrelli and Terenzini (1991) found in their secondary analysis of literature that Rest's DIT was more consistent than Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Inventory for studies involving college students. Kohlberg's theory reflected life-span change, not the limited early adulthood time span of traditional college students.

Kohlberg suggested that maturity in moral judgment corresponded to a universal criterion in a very prescriptive manner, thus he was perceived as a "formalist" who gave no concern to the content of moral decisions in his ladder identifying the development of reasoning. Kohlberg's theory specifically promoted democracy and commitment to justice in broad terms, without an explicit political agenda or social movement. He claimed objectivity without providing historical, contemporary political, or social analysis context, congruent with his belief that morality was an individual issue. Giroux (1991) questioned whether democracy could be promoted effectively with justice as the primary focus. He felt that as relativism, individualism, and consumerism continued to grow, educators needed to give students ways to "comprehend democracy as a way of life that consistently has to be fought for, struggled over, and rewritten as part of the practice of critical citizenship" (p. 308).

Kohlbergian theory continued to serve as a foundation for exploring moral education, which in turn stimulated additional research. Criticisms of his work notwithstanding, Kohlberg's contributions to stage development

offered contrast with other theories about students growth and development, including college impact models.

College Impact Models

The developmental stage and moral judgment theories dealt with the internal processes of individual students while another perspective in student development literature centered on the impact of a college environment. Astin (1985) presented an early college impact model of student involvement, which referred to "the amount of physical and psychological energy the student devotes to the academic experience" (p. 134). Astin suggested that learning occurred when students continually put energy into activities, and their level of involvement helped explain the changes that occurred. Learning encompassed both qualitative and quantitative dimensions, and the amount of development was perceived as directly proportional to the amount and quality of involvement. Consequently, one could expect that the largest positive effect of volunteering occurred when students interacted with other students and faculty. Astin's research suggested that college attendance made an overall positive impact on social conscience, humanitarianism, and civic values.

Both moral development and college impact theories were used by Delve, Mintz, & Stewart (1990) to design a five phased service-learning model connecting community service experience with change in choices and attitudes. They theorized that students who had no volunteer experience were more apt to explore a group volunteer project and then, with additional experience, to move through phases of clarification, realization, activation, and finally internalization of values and commitment. Changes occurring for students related the intensity of service involvement and the connection between learning and service. The internalized goals of an individual's final stage were to "pledge a lifetime to the pursuit of social justice in society" (p. 17). The

authors proposed that colleges encourage citizenship by making service-learning experience opportunities available and that faculty and staff provide support at every student development stage.

College experiences also could make an impact on students when they interacted with persons from cultures other than their own. Many students who entered college with limited exposure to diverse cultures may have had significant opportunities on campus to expand their contacts with others. Community service-learning places students in environments where they meet persons from a broad spectrum of ethnic and socioeconomic groups. For this reason and relative to the Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory used in this study, I reviewed research on students' attitudes regarding diversity.

Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) summarized general ways the college experience made a difference for students, including shifts toward openness and tolerance for diversity, stronger orientations toward other persons, and concern for individual rights and human welfare. Astin's research findings reinforced the belief that attitude changes about social activism, community orientation, and diversity activities positively affected students' development of a meaningful philosophy of life. Faculty orientation to diversity and institutional emphasis on diversity proved to have the strongest positive effects on cultural awareness and leadership abilities and positively affected diversity activities (1993). Research on cross-cultural change during college experience has increased in recent years with some projects using the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory.

The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI). Literature addressing cross-cultural effectiveness spanned a relatively short period of time. For example, authors of The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory Manual Bibliography (Kelley & Meyers, 1992) cited only 37 references,

approximately 15% from 1960 to 1974, 35% from 1975 to 1983, and 50% since 1985. The early books and articles, primarily in social psychology and anthropology, referred to the Peace Corps and Americans living abroad.

The authors described a milestone in 1960, when the concept of *culture shock* was introduced. In 1983, researchers attempted to predict overseas success in the Peace Corps, business, and military through identifying traits. The potential for long-term adjustment became the focus by addressing issues of adjustment, adaptation, and effectiveness.

The CCAI was developed to help individuals define and clarify the "construct of cross-cultural adaptability," which set a framework for increasing behavioral and psychological competencies. The analysis and action planning approach encouraged an individual to assume responsibility for self-awareness and openness for change. The inventory was culture-general in that it did not target one particular culture.

Development of the inventory questions was not hypothesis based. Initially, cross-cultural specialists evaluated adaptability traits and then sorted the items into four categories. Cross-cultural experts and the general public tested the CCAI, published in 1987. Results from 653 people who responded to the inventory were statistically analyzed, with tabulation of the mean, median, standard deviation and range for each item. Kelley and Meyers (1992) used new statistical tests in the development of the 1992 version and established relative weight of each statement on the questionnaire.

The subjects used in piloting questions included people preparing to travel or live abroad, returning from living abroad, working or interacting with culturally diverse people, immigrants, and professionals who worked with all these groups. Frequencies, percents, and histograms summarized the demographics of subjects' experiences abroad by gender, age, satisfaction

abroad, cultural background, nationality, occupation and highest educational level completed. Between 70% and 80% of the subjects fit within the profile of being under thirty, including students, educators, or missionaries with some college. Only 28% were students and 62% were male.

The researchers used the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for statistical analysis, with the demographic data as the independent variable related to scores from each of the four Cross-cultural adaptability scales: Emotional Resilience (ER), Flexibility/Openness (FO), Perceptual Acuity (PAC), and Personal Autonomy (PA). All possible pairs of means and estimates for the probability of chance differences were reported. Some contrasts that appeared to be relevant for this study were:

- Persons who were older or had higher levels of education scored higher in PAC and FO.
- Subjects under 20 years of age had higher scores on PA than subjects over the age of 20.
- The mean scores for all original subjects (n=653) were: ER, 79.58; FO, 66.92; PAC 46.47; PA, 32.88.
- The mean scores for students (N 183) were: ER, 79.2; FO, 65.38; PAC, 46.86; PA, 32.91.
- The amount of experience abroad that the original subjects had: none, 29.35%; less than 1 month, 11.49%; 1-12 months, 20.96%; 13-36 months, 19.25%; over 3 years, 18.94%.

These statistics provided a comparison for change with CCAI scores in this study, where students interacted with diverse students and recipients of service. College impact theories addressed students' responses to diversity issues, attitudes towards social activism, and orientation to community issues. Other theorists explored the motivations that moved some students to action.

Motivation Theories

A number of research projects attempted to answer questions about why some students volunteered and others did not. Coles (1993) used in-depth interviews to discover personal satisfactions that led students and others to volunteer. Some comments by students were:

> I tell you, this is a real privilege; I am doing something useful with people who are the salt of the earth! Every day I thank my lucky stars - I thank God - for the good fortune to be here. . .Every day I learn something from them. . . (p 73).
>
> But when you see someone floundering, and you're afraid he's going to go under, then you sure try your damnedest to throw out every lifesaver you can think of! (p. 76).
>
> On certain days I let myself become aware of the enormity of the problem - how much needs to be done in this country. . . .It's our nation's problem:. . .what kind of country do we want. . .and what kind of people do we want to be? (p. 273).

Coles, a child psychiatrist who teaches both Harvard undergraduates and graduate students, found idealism in the students. Other researchers used surveys or a combination of surveys and interviews to find predictors of which students might volunteer and their motivations.

Astin (1990) analyzed which freshman characteristics predicted volunteer involvement during college through samples of some 25,000 freshman students in the fall of 1985 and four years later. High school volunteering emerged as the strongest predictor of college students becoming volunteers, though consistency in volunteer participation for these students dropped during college. Life goals of student volunteers included the desire to

help others; goals of students who did not volunteer tended to focus on financial success.

The motivation of student volunteers was the focus Fagan's (1992) research. Altruistic reasons predominated, with satisfaction in helping others and response to people's needs as the most frequently cited motivations. He found that goals of student volunteers correlated with students' developmental levels and altruism typically increased as students grew older.

Serow (1991) also addressed the outcome of community service experiences. Both surveys and interviews helped him elicit students' perceptions about why they volunteered. The surveys associated student volunteers with a sense of satisfaction from helping others, while the most consistent theme from the interviews cited community service as compensation for the missed opportunities of lost relationships. He found renewed idealism, with helping other people as the highest value for community service participants, followed by involvement in clubs or classes, and the duty to correct societal problems. Altruistic motives related to giving personal assistance to others, with less emphasis on responding to general social problems. Serow stated that the initial, relatively narrow motivations of students held minimal potential for growth unless planned reflection was structured. In fact, he perceived negative outcomes as possible for those who received service without the reflective component.

Gaining satisfaction through helping others could threaten to harm those served in international and domestic programs, according to Illich (1990) in a speech "To Hell with Good Intentions." He acknowledged the student volunteers intended good will but felt they did so "to soothe their troubled consciences" (p. 318). Illich saw do-gooding as pretentious, condescending, and irrelevant to the real needs of the poor, which middle-class college students

could not even understand. The internal motivations of doing for others raised strong concerns.

In addition to the internal motivation, research on socialization and volunteer work indicated the role of parents' volunteering was two-edged. Fitzsimmons (1986), asked 424 graduates of a large midwestern university if they had spent any of their time doing volunteer work during the past year. She established a significant positive correlation between their volunteer involvement if the father had volunteered and a negative correlation with the mother's volunteering. On the basis of her findings, Fitzsimmons theorized that sex role socialization made an impact in that men, who had changing roles related to volunteer work, were the important reference group. She thought womens' volunteer involvement could have been perceived as an extension of their roles as mothers. Fitzsimmons' research also discovered that students volunteering through a course requirement appeared to have been socialized for future volunteer work.

Astin (1990) identified positive correlates between student involvement in community service and the institution's priorities as perceived by faculty. These included helping students examine and understand their personal values, and learn how to bring about change in American society. General agreement existed that the university had responsibilities to provide support to community service programming.

In summary, the role of university support staff included helping students expand their awareness and sensitivity to diversity, enhancing their development, and exploring citizen responsibility. I identified no research regarding the effect of support given to community service participants or leaders. Barr et al. (1990), in their book about the future for student affairs

professionals, stressed teaching citizenship primarily through student government and mentioned community service involvement secondarily.

The Kettering Foundation report, *Politics for the Twenty-first Century: What Should be Done on Campus?* recommended four options that would increase the impact of a college experience on student development as citizens. These included: giving public service, involving students in off-campus communities to learn compassion and responsibility; acquiring deliberative skills to prepare for problem solving; experiencing democracy though participation in campus activities; and stressing "intellectual rigor and academic excellence. . .for a well-educated citizenry" (Farland & Henry, 1992, i).

While student development theorists indicated commitment to community occurred during the college experience, adult development theorists ascribed commitment to community as occurring in the final stages of maturity. Theories on relationship of maturation and volunteering were compared to student development theories.

Adult Development

Adult Development Relative to Community Service

Adult development theorists identified a mature adult, in part, as an individual who understood and responded to moral responsibility within a community. Erikson (1980) discussed generativity primarily in relation to parenting, but added that the interest in "establishing and guiding the next generation" (p. 103) could emerge through altruistic activities as an alternative to parental responsibility. Building upon Erikson's idea of generativity, Levinson (1978) described mid-life transition in *Seasons of a Man's Life*. He identified mentoring as a developmental process when a "growing awareness of continuity of life and the flow of generations" (p. 254) became important. The mentors would act voluntarily to help prepare the next generation for adult

responsibilities, but Levinson did not state that mentoring necessarily took place in the volunteer sector.

Until Gilligan's (1982) research, adult development studies were typically based on only male subjects. Men moved away from dependent relationships and ascribed individuation as a step toward maturity, before integrating a sense of commitment. In contrast, Gilligan found that women described themselves within relationships throughout developmental stages and followed an ethic of nurturing, responsibility, and care (p. 159). Similarly, in *Women's Ways of Knowing*, the authors identified constructivist women in the final developmental position as striving to translate their moral commitments into action. These commitments were based on feelings of responsibility to the larger community (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger & Tarule, 1986, p. 150).

Comparisons between Adult and Student Development Theories

Some adult development theories assumed commitment to service emerged after adults became settled in their personal lives, while student development theories indicated students made commitments to community throughout their college years. The college experience even reinforced the experiences of some students who entered college having a history of community service-learning experience. Educators hypothesized that the earlier students were introduced to meaningful volunteer experiences, the more possibilities existed for "habits of the heart" to develop. Students who assumed responsibilities as leaders for community service projects had potential for additional dimensions of learning that called for understanding leadership.

Leadership

Leadership Defined: Relationship to the Study

The broad topic of leadership was narrowed by examining several components of the definition used in this study and by referencing authors who linked leadership and citizenship responsibilities. I defined leadership as occurring when an individual engages and influences collaborators in reciprocal learning relationships to develop a mutual purpose and to work together toward intended change. I concur with Foster (1989) that leadership has an ethical dimension founded on "moral relationships. . .intended to elevate people to new levels of morality" (p. 55) and needs to be a "cause of civic moral education" (p. 56).

Research questions for this study related to three elements of the definition. Relationships build through reciprocal learning processes that occurred during community service experiences, thus learning is the first element of leadership discussed. Since the collaborators in community service programs encompass very diverse populations, one research question asked how these populations influenced student leaders' insights or behaviors; therefore, literature about leadership and diversity became the second focus. One reason leaders and collaborators served the community was to work toward change, the final discussion regarding leadership.

Student leaders bridged the university and the community, so the literature review included the history of volunteer leadership and contemporary influences on volunteer leaders in both arenas. This section looked at authors who linked leadership with citizenship and the common good.

Reflective Learning

Effective service-learning depended upon a reflection component, as suggested in Kolb's (1984) learning model that integrated knowledge and

experience. Kolb theorized that in early stages of development, his four modes or dimensions of learning could occur in relative independence. He felt that learning modes such as concrete experience (feeling), reflective observation (watching), abstract conceptualization (thinking), and active experimentation (doing)" (p. 68) integrated at the highest stage of development. Some authors referred to Kolb's work as forming an experiential learning cycle which served as a basis for understanding service-learning (Delve, et al., 1990; Stanton, 1990a; Couto, 1993).

Kolb's model paralleled a differentiation that Argyris made between single-loop and double-loop learning. Both begin with experience. Kolb moved to reflection, rethinking, and testing in new situations. Argyris' (1982) double-loop learning applied to experiential education in that individuals reexamine and alter a governing variable, "the preferred states" (p. 49) then act upon a new solution. He believed a person must "unfreeze" old thought patterns and actions when a problem arises, then experiment with new solutions and actions. Models developed by Kolb and Argyris involve reflection and testing new values and behaviors. As Argyris described single loop learning, persons observe individuals "acting as agents for the organization, to drive and guide their actions" (p. 49), without examining the governing variables.

Menlo (1993) stated that cycles of action and reflection deepened learning, but questioned what knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values might be needed for students to put this process into action. Accessing "intra-personal information needed for learning" (p. 14) depended upon four competencies: reflective listening, seeking feedback, acuity in observation, and mindfulness in thinking. He suggested that service-givers had to "comprehend the nature of the need" (1993, p. 15) before mutual learning could take place. Receiving feedback checked whether the service addressed the need; acuity in

observation helped the student span across system levels to include the self, the recipient of service, the organization, and the community. Meta-thinking that helped students move away from previously established cognitive patterns described the fourth competency, mindfulness in thinking. A faculty member in a major Midwestern research university became convinced "the future of our youth - indeed, of the country itself - rests on the sorts of personal and educational transformations encouraged by service learning at all levels" (Anson, 1993, p. 79). As an academician, he continued his thoughts about teaching and learning:

> We think that our knowledge and excitement about our subjects is the key. In teaching this service learning course, I have begun to understand that the key is not in academia alone. Academics is like a bundle of wires and resistors and fuses, sitting lifelessly until something out there, something in the work of humans and actions and beliefs and conflict powers up those wires with just the right kind of intellectual energy. The energy lies in the relationship of academia to the real social, cultural and political problems beyond the wall of education (p. 80).

The Jepson School of Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond made such a connection by developing specific learning goals for their community service component. Students were expected to recognize social needs, their own values, their acceptance and support of social service systems, and be able to articulate them (Couto, 1993). Boyte (1993) captured the importance of helping students exercise "practical judgment, critical thinking and self-evaluation that are crucial to strong and effective citizenship in our fractured, multi-layered world (p. 64). Learning theories and competencies applied to students who engaged in service-learning to help them reexamine concepts in new settings and to deal with people in the community,

many of whom come from socio-economic or ethnic background different from their own.

Diversity

Effective student community service programs need commitment to interact with diverse populations, according to Honnet and Poulsen (1989). Permaul (1993) identified diverse populations as "cultural and ethnic differences. . ., individual differences (gender, mental-physical abilities, age,) and other personal-social-economic characteristics, and international differences. . ." (p. 8.) Other authors discussed how experience and learning about diverse cultures might occur for leaders.

Loden and Rosener (1991) recommended that an effective leader must be pluralistic and recognize that organizational cultures must become collaborative, with mutual respect existing for people from all cultures. The authors believed leaders should be aware of world views, priorities, concerns and goals held by persons from cultures other than their own. They listed ways that leaders act upon that awareness by using inclusive language and analogies, as well as attending to preferences of others. They listed basic courtesies: respect of others' methods of assertion, recognition of others comfort with physical proximity, and awareness of different problem solving approaches. A major challenge existed, according to Stewart and Bennett (1991) in that the "core difficulty in cross-cultural interaction is - simply stated - a failure to recognize relevant cultural differences" (p. 6). These authors felt that other cultures do not share the American orientations for action and getting things done, or the American preoccupations with time, deadlines, or competition. The importance of students learning about differences and hierarchies presented "the most profound challenge of contemporary life, one

upon which, it is rapidly becoming clear, our very survival may depend" (Ostrander, 1993, p. 73).

I found limited references to diversity issues in contemporary books about leadership. Senge (1990) mentioned that "cultures program the subconscious (p. 366)," noting briefly that this effects beliefs and language. The class system, reflected by income differences, was Block's (1993) focus on diversity. Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (1993) acknowledged that leaders face increasingly common challenges in "dealing with diverse and divergent values" (p. 172) which promised to increase interpersonal conflict. By skirting the impact of shifting demographics, the authors seemed to minimize diversity issues as major factors for leaders who want to make changes. The process and outcome of change appeared throughout leadership literature.

Change

Rost (1991) identified the most distinguishing element of leadership as the process of change, which had to be intended and significant, with the strong belief that leadership did not occur when the change was incremental. The intended change "must be substantive and transforming" (p. 103) and *real*, which meant "changes in people's lives, attitudes, behaviors, and basic assumptions, as well as in the groups, organizations, societies, and civilizations they are trying to lead" (p. 155). Organizations, challenged Senge (1990), should see "patterns of change" (p. 68) and move away from a crisis theory of change as a "threat to survival" (p. 154). Wheatley (1992) suggested a shift of attitude about change by trusting "the presence of nonvisible influences that facilitate orderly processes of creation and change" (p. 136).

Other authors discussed approaches to change. According to Bolman and Deal (1984), major schools of thought have developed within the social sciences regarding how organizations function. These include the rational

systems school with an emphasis on structures and goals, human resource theorists who focus on the interdependence among people and the organization, political theorists who see power and conflict as central issues, and symbolic theorists who center upon organizational meanings. The metaphor of a layered cake was used by Foster (1986) to describe the approaches to change that might occur within organizations: the rational/managerial or cognitive approach, the systems/organic, personal/therapeutic, political/economic and cultural/symbolic approaches. More than one approach might take place at the same time, according to Foster, like cutting through several layers of cake at one time.

Writers in the nonprofit sector began using the term citizenship in the early 1960s, when describing ways that volunteers became involved in communities. A parallel link of leadership and citizen involvement surfaced in higher education during the 1960s and again in the mid 1980s. During this time span, authors in both arenas made efforts to define leadership.

Higher Education and Leadership

Leadership Defined

John Gardner and Robert Greenleaf were quoted frequently in both nonprofit and university service-learning literature. Gardner (1990) contributed significantly to issues regarding community, based on his experiences as a leader in both Common Cause and the Independent Sector, as a university professor and spokesperson for the development of university community service, and as former Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare. He defined the common good as "values or purposes held jointly by the group" and stated that "pluralism that reflects no commitments whatever to the common good is pluralism gone berserk" (p. 97).

Gardner (1990) saw leadership as a process, where an individual or leadership team persuaded followers or constituents to work toward the leaders' vision, which may or may not be shared by the followers. While his approach to leadership appeared to be top down, he challenged citizens to "understand the possibilities and limitations of leadership. . .how we can strengthen and support good leaders. . .see through the leaders who are exploiting" (p. xv). In reference to college public service, he conceded that leadership may not occur, but the experience did expand "capacity to relate to unfamiliar constituencies" (p. 191).

Robert Greenleaf (1977), a corporate leader, reached out specifically to students during the campus turmoil of the late 1960's and early 1970s when he wrote *The Servant as Leader*. He felt the community could only be rebuilt by "each servant-leader demonstrating his own unlimited liability for a quite specific community-related group" (p. 39).

Theories and Approaches to Student Leadership Development

Greenleaf's servant-leadership approach emerged as a preferred theory in literature about community service (Delve & Rice, 1990; Sigmon, 1979; Stanton, 1990b). Theorists encouraged students who interacted with people in the community to mutually enhance and empower all people in the organizations where they served, a reflection of Greenleaf's writings. However, Payne (1988) expressed difficulty with having servant-leadership as the dominant concept. While it could provide insight for some students, others might respond with guilt or duty as the reason for giving service. Payne's concern centered on whether the theory limited students' capacity to address the common good or could encourage "a kind of heavy-handed moralism" (1988, p. 6).

Payne (1988) pointed out that both curricular and co-curricular approaches to leadership development in higher education were, in contrast, relatively new phenomena. While some campus-based leadership programs combined both theory and action, most emerged from either a wholly academic approach or the largely non-academic sponsored programs through student services. Literature from both areas of university sponsored student leadership programs, including those with a community service component, were relevant to this study.

Co-curricular Leadership Development

Student services programs for leadership development began in the early 1970s and generally targeted those students who already assumed leadership positions in student organizations. These early leadership programs reflected the dominant hierarchical structure, with leaders at the top. Many student leadership programs reflected traditional assumptions regarding leadership and often stemmed from one theory or model. Other traditional assumptions continued to influence student leadership approaches, such as seeing power come from a position or resource and stressing skills and knowledge for the development of leaders (Allen 1992).

According to Rost and Cosgrove (1987) the issue of power needed to be covered in leadership development programs by teaching students about political dimensions. Future leaders would be prepared to identify and hear the interests of individuals and groups, and then be able to build collaboration among groups. Within the political environment of the campus, students who understood politics could deal more effectively with controversy and think about the legacy they might leave.

Allen (1992) challenged traditional assumptions about current foundations for leadership programs and suggested students should be

prepared for the complex, changing world they faced after college. She described an approach to leadership development where leaders existed at all levels of an organization and where they involved others in decision making. Leaders also could use power to empower others and be comfortable with rapid change. Allen suggested other shifts from the dominant paradigm, including movement from management concepts to meaning systems, from power over to power with, from organizational goals to purposeful direction, and from individual focus to the common good.

Student services leadership programs generally focused on skill building which occurred during retreats and workshops, separate from the academic program. The separation of co-curricular and curricular approaches served as an example of political realities that have existed on most campuses.

Curricular Based Leadership Development

In contrast to the practical skill building approach through student services, Stanton (1990a) described the liberal arts academic program as helping connect social problems with democratic citizenship responsibilities. He saw faculty as key to linking service and curriculum, through critical thinking. Content of behavioral science leadership programs generally dealt with the nature of leadership or with leaders as individuals. Some programs attempted to connect intellectual programs with the experiential since neither approach to leadership in itself, according to Stanton (1990b), helps students learn judgment in action.

The University of Richmond Jepson School of Leadership Studies incorporated service-learning as a component within the four curricular program themes: communication, critical thinking, values and imagination, and social and individual differences. All students completed a service-learning requirement with the expectation that theory and experience be integrated.

Students did not necessarily assume a leadership position, but could potentially observe leadership. Cuoto (1993) surmised from a student's comment that individuals "gained lessons important for leadership" (p. 71) more than learning about leadership. The University of San Diego requires a field experience within the USD Leadership minor, which combines leadership theory classes and an experiential learning practicum. A separate USD field experience seminar, "Leadership through volunteerism" offers theoretical dimensions for students who coordinate community service programs.

Academics and advisors to student leaders identified reflection as a crucial component for students who engaged in service linked with learning. Stanton (1990b) described the reflective process as requiring "service learners to build theory from practice by thinking inductively and strengthening analysis and synthesis skills"(p. 350). He believed democracy needed effective leadership where citizens serve the common good, something that could come into focus when reflection followed a service-learning experience.

Research on Student Leadership

In higher education research, Astin (1993) found student leadership abilities were affected positively with co-curricular involvement in student clubs and organizations and in volunteer work. Students who defined themselves as leaders tended to have affluent, well-educated parents. Those students who interacted with peers and faculty also identified themselves as leaders. Volunteer work did not specifically correlate with student development but negatively correlated with the view that an individual had little power to change society. Astin found that students who volunteered believed they may be able to change society.

Researchers continue to identify volunteerism and service-learning as topics in need of further research. The research agendas developed during the

mid-1980s through the collaborative efforts of the American Association of Higher Education (AAHE) and the American Education Research Association (AERA) included volunteerism as one of six categories. Leadership development was not one of the categories. Within the Volunteerism category, suggested research topics included student motivation and the consequences of volunteer experiences, reasons students began volunteering, and incentives for life-long service.

Mentkowski & Chickering (1987) encouraged researchers to explore changes in student attitudes, social responsibility, and potential for "life-long habits of public service" (p. 156). A 1991 Wingspread Conference addressed "the scarcity of replicable qualitative and quantitative research on the effects of service-learning on student learning and development" (Giles, Honnet, & Migliore, 1991, p. 1). One of two thematic questions identified at the conference focused on the effect of "intellectual, moral, and citizenship development of participants" (p. 3).

Since student leaders facilitate service-learning within or in connection to community organizations, I reviewed historic perspectives and current practices of volunteerism within the nonprofit sector. Research on volunteerism began fairly recently, considering the long history of nonprofit volunteer involvement in this country.

Leadership in the Nonprofit Sector

History of Nonprofit Leadership

The roles of all nonprofit leaders, including volunteers, changed significantly during the history of our country. Volunteer leaders in the early years of our country were self selected by their availability, status, or expertise (Ellis & Noyes, 1990; Sieder, 1960). Issues of gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status permeated the literature on nonprofit and public sector

leadership. The voluntary sector provided opportunities for leadership development "for those with limited access to such roles in business and government organizations" (O'Neill, 1989, p. 17). Women and members of diverse ethnic groups had options to become leaders in their own Third-Sector organizations.

Within the dominant White culture, men from the corporate sector traditionally served as board members in prestigious community nonprofit organizations. At the turn of the century, organizations for young women began to prepare women with knowledge and experience to become board members (Sieder, 1960). Evans (1989), documented ways women in the United States used leadership skills and experience "acquired in voluntary associations to demand liberty and citizenship as their birthright" (p. 68). As a more contemporary issue, women volunteers often moved into administrative positions by being upper middle class through family of origin or through marriage. Covelli (1985) found these volunteers agreed they gained expertise, prestige, and contacts in their roles. He concluded, however, that the female directors contributed to "maintenance of the voluntary sector status quo" (p. 27).

Diversity of ethnic groups in the volunteer sector, including board membership, was widely discussed in nonprofit literature. Within the past few decades, traditional organizations have searched for ways to increase participation and leadership of persons from diverse cultures, overlooking long traditions of volunteer leadership within each culture during the times when traditional volunteer organizations remained exclusive. As new immigrants arrived, Black, Asian, and Latino leaders initiated associations which supported mutual help, similar to associations initiated by earlier European American immigrants. Culturally-diverse leaders started organizations

paralleling the traditional human service organizations (Rauner, 1992). Davis (1984) noted that African Americans moved from a long history of leadership in specific social organizations to the confronting strategies they employed in the 1970s, when black leadership was equated with political leadership, not social reform.

Contemporary Context for Volunteerism

The limits of citizen participation were researched by Gittel (1980), who looked at the potential for participation by those of lower socio-economic status in both formal governmental and extra-governmental structures. He addressed ways to lower the costs of participation of the poor, who faced economic issues of limited financial security and time as they dealt with survival issues. During recent decades, roles or positions identified volunteer leaders in the nonprofit sector, including board of director members. Corrick & Detweiler (1980) described leadership in grass roots or community based organizations as the "process by which a relatively small number of individuals behave in such a way that they affect, or prevent, a significant change in the lives of relatively large numbers" (p. 5). These same authors raised questions about whether or not the identified leaders really assumed leadership, and whether these persons, volunteer and paid, proved to be effective.

The roles of paid personnel pertained to this study, especially whether they facilitated leadership opportunities for volunteers. Ellis & Noyes (1990) reported volunteer administrators, a profession identified in the early 1970s, have provided support for volunteers. The Association of Volunteer Administrators worked to promote professionalism and to strengthen effective utilization of volunteers. Organizations affirmed the importance of volunteers, yet these professional administrators received limited financial remuneration. Gender and ethnicity arose as issues for volunteer administrators because

white females, 89% women and 96% white, dominated the field. The profession struggled with issues of high turnover rates, poor pay, and lack of credibility (Van Til, 1988). Carlsen (1991) concurred that volunteer administrators often came from the ranks of volunteers, lacked both academic based credentialing and acceptance within their organizations. These factors caused frequent turnover.

Ilsley (1990) elicited opinions from volunteers who felt volunteer administrators directed more energy toward management and control than toward empowering them as volunteers. He found volunteer administrators in large formal organizations were increasingly seen as removed from peoples' needs and maybe even "trying to protect the status quo by diverting citizen protest in safe, apolitical channels" (p. 137). Volunteers said they wanted more voice in decision making, opportunity to act on their values, and learning opportunities.

Contemporary Nonprofit Leadership

During recent decades, many people continued to envision the nonprofit sector as dominated by European Americans and by traditional management or leadership. Nonprofit management literature, starting in the early 1960s, paralleled business leadership approaches. The authors included nonprofit association leaders, academics, and business specialists like accountants, lawyers, public relations consultants, and grantmakers. Efficiency became crucial as nonprofit organizations assumed more responsibilities for public services.

Authors of current leadership books made limited references to leaders' citizenship responsibilities or to their encouraging others to serve their communities. Stewardship, the use of resources for positive purposes and giving service, was advocated by Covey (1990). Bennis and Nanus (1985)

made no reference to citizenship and Senge (1990) only associated connectedness to the world as necessary for personal mastery (p. 169). Kouzes and Posner (1987) saw participation in community groups as necessary for personal development, for higher-order value thinking, and as serving "the values of freedom, justice, caring, and dignity. . .to renew democracy"(p. 300). These authors also encouraged leaders to model commitment to values and service for students. Rost (1991) did not include working toward the common good as a component in his definition, but framed the idea of civic virtue as the "ethics of the content of leadership" (p. 176) where leaders moved beyond personal responsibilities to the public interest.

Literature Review - A Summary

While no common definition of citizenship was agreed upon, the value of citizenship development permeated discussion about the mission of higher education. Community service that linked with learning helped students, in the opinions of numerous leaders in higher education, to test and synthesize ideas taught in the classroom (Payton, 1990; Stanley, 1989; Stanton, 1990a). Nonprofit literature also attempted to define citizenship and the relationship to volunteer involvement.

The research on student development during the college experience identified community service-learning as one enhancement toward personal growth. Developmental theorists saw commitment to serving the community as a signpost of higher level moral thinking and behavior. While I did not find research on student leadership in university community service, some current student development theory suggested that service-learning experience related to the personal growth of students. Many potential research issues existed regarding citizenship development in higher education. General leadership theory and perspectives from higher education and the nonprofit sector

provided a foundation for looking at student community service leaders and whether they could effect real, intended change.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The dramatic increase of university community service during the mid 1980s gave significance to this study. Those persons who interacted with community service leaders made observations and heard anecdotal evidence that student leadership did have impact. However, a dearth of empirical evidence in the literature review revealed that students' experience of community service leadership was an unexplored phenomenon. This study examined the experiences of college students as community service leaders over a two year period in two institutions.

While leading service projects, the students also attended classes, lived in group settings, had personal relationships, and participated in co-curricular activities and work constituting a total college experience. The community service projects they led involved conditions they could not control, including responsiveness of volunteers and situations at the agency or school project locations. These many external forces could not be controlled and became key factors in determining the approach for this study.

Research Approach

A qualitative study was the appropriate research methodology, in part because of the uncontrollable factors in students' lives, but also because I had no hypothesis and sought no particular predisposed truth. Marshall and Rossman (1989) stated "research is worth doing only if it explores some part of the research cycle that is still unknown, that has not been explained well

before" (p. 23). As previously stated, I found no research on students' experiences as community service leaders. This study began with an observation, then moved through data collection, data analysis, description generalization, and explanation. Research questions developed based on related literature and theory, with the primary research goal "to discover those very questions that are most probing and insightful" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 26). My real-world observations of student community service leaders prompted my framing the research question.

The qualitative research design involved systematic gathering of information, reflection on meaning, arrival at and evaluation of conclusions. The process, as described by Marshall and Rossman (1989), put forward an interpretation of human interactions. These authors made the argument for a natural setting in that qualitative research most often "be rins with observations in the real world" (p. 22) then introduces questions about how everyday experiences fit with existing related theories. Guba and Lincoln (1990) also recommended a natural setting to gather and compile data.

Case study methodology emerged as the most appropriate qualitative method. Merriam (1988) gave four reasons for using a case study: the nature of the questions being *how* and *why;* the amount of control being limited; the desired end product emerging as a description and interpretation of a phenomenon; and a bounded system being "identified as the focus of the investigation" (p. 9). The study investigated how student leaders' experiences made an impact on them and the researcher had few controls over events. The end product was a holistic description of bounded experiences that took place specifically within the phenomenon of community service leadership. Yin (1984) stated the case study is preferred when a researcher studies

contemporary events and when the variable cannot be separated from the context.

Multiple data gathering approaches took a holistic approach to the *why* and *how* research questions. Solid descriptive data provided details about the emotions, relationship, history, and significance related to a study, referred to as a "thick description," that includes context and meaning for making interpretation possible (Merriam, 1988). Several sources of data addressed a single point to strengthen the study design and to "corroborate, elaborate, or illuminate" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 146) the research with a process termed "triangulation." These authors stated since every data gathering approach has both strengths and weaknesses, the strength of one approach may compensate for the weakness of another. Triangulation also allowed consistency comparisons from different sources during a variety of time frames.

In the case study approach, direct observations and interviews helped understandings emerge during the examination of a group. The concrete context of a particular setting and population afforded opportunities to relate to a real-life situation. In addition to being particularistic, Merriam (1988) included three other characteristics as essential properties of a qualitative case study: being heuristic, inductive, and descriptive. The reader of a case study could discover new meaning or confirm what was already known, illuminating a heuristic understanding. Inductive reasoning occurred as descriptive information stimulated "discovery of new relationships, concepts, and understanding" (p. 13).

The naturalist paradigm influenced the approach to this study. Merriam (1988) described this as research that is:

> . . . exploratory, inductive, and emphasizes processes rather than ends. In this paradigm, there are no predetermined hypotheses, no treatments, and no restrictions on the end product. One does not manipulate variables or administer a treatment. What one *does* do is observe, intuit, sense what is occurring in a natural setting-- hence the *naturalistic* inquiry (p. 17).

Observation of community service leaders and anecdotal evidence caused me to sense that something occurred for them. A process approach allowed exploration of the students' experiences in their natural setting. As mentioned previously, no treatments or restrictions existed in this research design.

Critical theory influenced this research. In the context of the study, student leaders made a moral commitment to social change through their personal experience and by empowering other students to give service. These two elements connect to a critically educative goal of higher education, developing students as citizens. Foster (1989) made a point that "social change can be accomplished without the complete restructuring of any given society: in fact, social change occurs frequently, in small doses, in the actions and activities of various groups and individuals who hope to make some sort of difference" (p. 53).

The methodology of a multiple or comparative case study framework remained the same as a single case study, as recommended by Yin (1984). I used single case methodology for each of the four groups of community service leaders, at two sites over a two year period, before making cross-case comparisons. "Interpretation based on evidence from several cases can be more compelling to a reader than results based on a single instance," stated Merriam (1988, p. 154).

In summary, Merriam (1988) described a qualitative case study as "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit" (p. 21). The inductive process of focusing on a specific phenomenon offered descriptive insights within a bonded context. Case study methodology, grounded in the naturalist research paradigm, and critical theory provided foundations for the research design I developed for this study.

Research Design

This multiple-case study was designed to describe the impact of community service leadership on student development at two research sites. A four step process began each year once participants were identified. First, multiple data-gathering approaches generated information about the students' perceptions, not their behaviors, in the context where they lead community service programs and projects. Second, I analyzed the data and wrote individual case studies. Third, the data collected for each case were compared in a cross-case analysis. Fourth, conclusions were drawn and recommendations made for further exploration of the student community service leadership experience.

Site Selection

Merriam (1988) stated criterion-based decisions for a case study must be made by identifying comparable sites. I selected Santa Clara University (SCU) for comparison with the University of San Diego (USD) because the demographics and community service programming of two universities appeared to be similar.

Both of these Catholic universities stressed the importance of values education as part of their mission statement. The two California universities had traditional undergraduate student body populations of between 3,800 and 4,000 students, aged 18 to 22. The commonalties shared by these universities

limited the number of unrelated variables. I had a working knowledge of both universities and the respective community service programs, since I had helped students at USD initiate their program based on the already established Santa Clara Community Action Project (SCCAP) program.

Two dissimilar variables existed between the sites, the length of time the respective community service programs existed and the sources of funding. Students initiated the well-established SCU program 26 years before this study began and received primary funding through student activity fees; the relatively new USD program developed during the six years before the study, with university funding and some external financial support through grants. Within the SCU program structure, each student coordinated one or more projects and received a stipend. At USD, two students often coordinated one project and they had the option of earning one unit of field experience credit. Commonalties also existed in the community service programs, including the structure of the programs and the selection process for community service leaders.

Each university program had student directors who assumed overall responsibilities for the community service program, while coordinators focused on an agency or school based project. Both SCU and USD provided space and staff advising support for their respective community service programs. Each program sponsored a continuum of one-time and ongoing projects and incorporated structured learning opportunities about issues regarding the populations they served. The SCU program depended primarily upon the agencies to offer training for volunteers, whereas some of the USD projects linked service to learning through course credit. In 1986, the SCU East Side Project began as a response to community needs and as support for faculty who incorporated service-learning into academic courses. At that time, the

East Side Project and SCCAP collaborated with the East Side Adult School ESL Program, and both continued to place students in the ESL program.

Student leaders from each university completed an application and interview process before becoming coordinators, so they were initially self selected and then chosen through a competitive process. By the beginning of each fall semester, 25 to 30 students assumed project responsibilities at each university. SCCAP coordinators accepted responsibilities for one or more projects; two or more USD coordinators teamed together to run one project.

Both programs linked community service leadership with learning through structured training about theory and practical strategies. SCCAP sponsored a spring weekend camping and team-building event for new coordinators and a five day orientation and pre-service training experience before fall classes began. The content included program management, issues of diversity, and skill development on such topics as conflict resolution. They visited the agencies served by SCCAP and a faculty member gave a presentation on the theology of service. USD students met for the first time as a group during a planning retreat the first weekend of the fall semester. The content included team-building, diversity issues, principles of good service-learning practice, and program management.

Each university funded advisors for the student community service coordinators, including professional staff and experienced student leaders. The advisors worked with the students to present workshops, and the project coordinators helped facilitate training for volunteers. Student leaders reflected upon their programming role and, to a limited degree, upon their leadership experiences.

In summary, I chose the two universities because many similarities existed in the university demographics and community service programs.

Major differences in the programs included length of time the programs had existed and funding sources. Benefits for the leaders also differed.

Participant Selection

At the beginning of their year as community service leaders, the eligible students at each university received an invitation to take part in this study. Participants had to make a one-year commitment to their project and attend orientation, planning, and training events. Students who returned to coordinator positions during the second year of the study could not participate the second year. For the two-year study, the total number of potential participants narrowed to approximately 40 from each university. I anticipated that over half of the eligible students from each university would become involved in the study.

Each fall during the two-year study, I met with potential participants at each university to discuss parameters of the study. Students were encouraged to ask questions about the study in either the group setting or on an individual basis. Potential student participants received a written summary of the research purpose and process at the time they were invited to join the study. After a student agreed to participate and signed the Consent Form (See Appendix A), he or she completed a basic demographic survey covering such categories as gender, ethnicity, and year in school. The survey solicited the students' history of past volunteer experiences. (See Appendix B).

Participants agreed to fill out two questionnaires at the beginning and end of the year, to keep journals or reflection papers, and to take part in a focus group interview at the end of their community service experience. Students could decline the invitation. Students who studied abroad, left school, or stopped coordinating their project during their second semester lost their eligibility to participate in the study.

During the 1992-93 year, all but one of the 22 potential Santa Clara students consented to participate; of the 19 eligible USD students, 18 agreed to be subjects. Attrition from the study occurred at both universities during the first year. Eight SCU students did not complete the study, leaving 14 students in the study. One student left his coordinator position, three others were out of town during the interview weekend, and four could not fit completion of questionnaires and the focus group interviews into their schedule during the two days that I gathered Santa Clara Community Action Project (SCCAP) data. Fourteen USD students remained after four students dropped from the study: one resigned the coordinator position, one left for a spring semester abroad, one did not fill out the spring questionnaires, and one chose not to continue for unknown reasons.

During the 1993-94 case studies, 15 of the 18 SCU student leaders who fit the criteria agreed to take part and 16 of the 18 eligible USD students became participants; however, one SCU student was out of town during the focus group interviews and two USD students either did not attend training events or continue their project throughout the year. Therefore, both community service programs retained 14 students as participants during the second year of the study.

Data Gathering Approaches and Techniques

Congruent with the case study methodology, I gathered data from multiple sources for a holistic exploration of the primary research question on how community service leadership impacted student development. A general description of the overall process and a section on each data-gathering approach introduce this section. The study began with examinations of archival records and on-site observations in the community service offices and during service projects in the community. Additional archival sources included

such items as brochures, program files, and articles. These sources helped me understand program similarities and differences. I interviewed staff advisors and, at the end of the second year, some first year participants who remained active in their respective community service program. These interviews helped increase my awareness of program changes during the two years of the study.

Surveys

Each participant completed a survey at the beginning of the year (see Appendix B). The survey included demographic information, including age, gender, ethnicity, year in school, and type of project or program responsibility. Students responded to questions about the influences prompting their interest in volunteerism and a history of their past volunteer experiences.

Questionnaires

The students completed two questionnaires, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI), at the beginning and end of the year that they participated in the study as community service leaders. I chose to use these questionnaires as possible indicators of student development or change during the year students served as community service leaders. These specific questionnaires related to two research questions. Student leaders faced situations where moral judgments might arise, which Rest (1986) designed the DIT to indicate. One research question asks whether any connections might emerge between community service experience and change in moral judgment. Because the student leaders interacted with many people from diverse cultures, another research question addressed whether these interactions shaped new insights or behaviors. The CCAI, while primarily designed as a personal growth tool, could possibly indicate change in cross-cultural adaptability during the year.

While these questionnaires provided data that could respond to the research questions, I combined data generated by the questionnaires with data from other sources. Most students completed the DIT in between 30 and 40 minutes and the CCAI in approximately 15 minutes. The respective authors of the DIT and CCAI gave permission to use the questionnaires (see Appendix D) in a pilot project during May 1992 and in these case studies. These instruments are available through the publishers.

The Defining Issues Test. The DIT, a questionnaire designed by James Rest, is intended to assess how individuals make moral judgments and has been frequently utilized in quantitative research. In the non-experimental research of this study, the DIT generated descriptive data using the moral judgment scores as one possible indicator of student development. I compared the community service leaders' scores with DIT scores of college students as compiled in a secondary analysis of research using the DIT (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Past reviews of over 50 studies of college students showed the DIT correlated significantly to a variety of behavioral and attitude measures (Rest, 1986, p. 178).

Rest (1986) looked at the psychology of morality through his research on individuals' ability to make moral judgments. Positions on the DIT, based on Kohlberg's moral developmental theory, began with an individual's ability to identify situations involving a moral dimension. Other positions encompassed the abilities to interpret a situation, to make a judgment regarding what is morally right and a possible line of action, to give priority to moral values over other personal values, and finally, to have the perseverance and ego strength to follow through with action. Well-established findings from research using the DIT indicated moral judgment changed progressively with time and formal education.

The DIT questionnaire consisted of six stories, each with 12 issue statements. Participants ranked the items according to how important each issue was for them in making a moral decision related to the story. I scored the DIT with the most commonly used P index, P standing for "principled morality" (Rest, 1986, p. 196). The score, expressed as a percentage, ranges from 0 to 95 and indicates the relative importance of items chosen that could be attributed to Kohlberg's Stage 5 and 6.

Rest (1986) described over 500 studies that used the DIT. He stated test-retest reliability for the DIT was generally in the high .70s of .80s, with Cronback's Alpha index of internal consistency in the high 70s. The CCAI had relatively limited comparative data, as a newer questionnaire.

The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory. The CCAI, by design, provided opportunities for formative self-directed growth in cross-cultural awareness and adaptability, in addition to identifying pre- and post-test score changes. Purposes of the CCAI included helping a person to: understand the factors or qualities that facilitate cross-cultural effectiveness; become self-aware regarding those factors or qualities in which one was strong and those which need improvement; improve skills in interacting with people from other cultures when one was already in multi-cultural or new-culture settings; and prepare to enter another culture. The four dimensions of CCAI were: Emotional Resilience (ER), or the feelings a person experienced "when interacting with people of other cultures" (Kelley & Meyers, 1992, p. 27); Flexibility/Openness (FO), the degree of comfort that an individual had with persons who thought differently than he or she did; Perceptual Acuity (PAC), the degree of empathy and sensitivity to people from other cultures; and Personal Autonomy (PA), the strength of a person's identity and values.

In demonstrating the CCAI reliability and validity, the authors reported coefficient alphas as .90 for overall reliability (standardized alpha) for internal consistency on the total score and the four scales. Estimates for the individual scale reliability indicated high internal consistency, where a person scoring high on one item scored high on other related items within a scale. With the same consistency, if one score was low then another within the scale would be expected to be low. The individual scale reliability estimates were reported as: Emotional Resilience, .82; Flexibility/Openness, .80; Perceptual Acuity, .78; and Personal Autonomy, 68.

The validity of the CCAI was equated with the potential effectiveness of meeting the instrument goals, which included (a) helping people understand the importance of living or working among people of other cultures, and (b) helping people know themselves to guide their cross-cultural development. The authors addressed face validity, content validity, construct validity, and predictive validity. Face validity involved the reader seeing the instrument's usefulness, which authors said occurred for examining adaptation to other cultures. Content validity focused on comprehensive and efficient coverage of subjects that are difficult to measure. Kelly and Meyers (1993) developed the CCAI from research and expert opinion, and described the survey as useful in a field with much remaining research potential. The authors made no direct claims about construct validity, that the instrument measured what it intended to measure. They stated "it might be said that the CCAI measures only correlates of cross-cultural adaptability, rather than core aspects of adaptability itself" (p. 32). Data, not just opinion, determined commonalties. They felt it was reasonable to expect some predictive validity. The authors restated that they designed the instrument to be used in training and sufficient

reliability and validity appeared to be present. Need for further testing is indicated.

Archival Records

Information I gathered at both universities included community service program histories and descriptions. No university academic or personal records of the participants were used in this project.

The materials generated background on the university community service programs that established a context for the students' leadership experiences. Both programs had scrapbooks of past newspaper articles and program materials offering historic perspectives. Program descriptions were gleaned from marketing pieces, evaluation reports, and other materials specific to each university. The orientation and training outlines and coordinator manuals provided information about the process and content of learning opportunities offered to the students. The type and scope of learning opportunities for both leaders and project volunteers were examined, as were the amounts of and approaches to advisor support. Community service reports indicated coordinators' perceptions of project effectiveness.

Observations and Non Participant Interviews

Opportunities existed to observe the study participants in their respective Santa Clara Community Action Project (SCCAP) office or USD Community Service Center. My observations took place during meetings and regular office hours. The amount of observation time spent varied between the two universities because I had ongoing access to the USD program and visited SCU only two or three times during each academic year. I also became a participant observer during several community service activities at USD. My limited trips to Santa Clara minimized participant observation during SCCAP projects, although I did observe one major service event each year.

I interviewed SCCAP and USD community service program advisors each year of the study. Some first year participants, who coordinated projects during the second year of the study, shared their general observations about any changes they perceived in the community service program between the two years. These students were part of the first year cohort and did not discuss the personal impact of their second year experience as leaders.

Journals and Reflection Papers

Students who kept on-going journals or wrote reflection papers interpreted their own community service leadership experiences qualitatively. These students wrote about topics such as their greatest personal challenges, most meaningful interactions, and responses to learning experiences. No specific requirements existed about the length about the journal or frequency of entries.

All of the USD participants kept journals or reflection papers, as a seminar requirement, as did approximately half of the SCU students. Although the SCU participants had agreed to keep a journal or write a reflection paper, approximately half chose not to do so.

Focus Group Interviews

At the end of each academic year, I interviewed study participants in focus groups of two to four students to elicit student's thoughts and feelings about their community service leadership experience. Patton (1990) stated the qualitative interview intended to "find out what is in and on someone else's mind" (p. 278). This study sought to understand the students' responses to their leadership experiences and the interviews attempted to capture personal perspectives.

Semi-structured interview questions (See Appendix C) sought parallel information from all students in the study, but neither the exact wording nor

the order of the questions remained constant. I attempted to keep the beginning and ending questions consistent. Following introductory comments about the purpose of the study, the initial question asked for an overview statement about the students' experiences of community service leadership. The final questions solicited opinions about the support students received and their participation in the study. Interim questions requested student opinions about changes in their personal skills, perceptions of others, influence over others, and attitudes about social issues. Effort was made to introduce a singular topic in each question.

I kept the interviews flexible, to seek additional information in response to a student comment. Sometimes this provided a natural lead-in to another topic, perhaps out of planned order. Questions generally followed a lead-in format based on the assumption that "what is presupposed is the natural way things occur" (Patton, 1990, p. 304). As researcher, I presumed change took place for student community service leaders during their year-long experience and maintained openness about the degree and direction of such change. I avoided "why" questions which had the potential to shift away from the participants' perspective or to imply the perspective might not be valid. I avoided language which could be perceived as a judgment about the types of changes occurring for the participants. Some participants needed more prompting than others. I listened carefully to the responses for clues that the subject misunderstood the question and offered appropriate clarification when indicated. When several participants highlighted a particular issue during the course of the interviews, the remaining interviewees were given opportunities to respond to the same issue (Seidman, 1991).

Focus groups, generally defined as homogeneous groups of six to eight people who participate in open-ended interviews "on specially targeted or

focused issues," (Patton, p. 173) provided the model for this study. The focus group approach utilized "the explicit use of the group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group" (Morgan, 1988, p. 12). This approach shifted the interaction away from the interviewer, and placed greater emphasis on the interviewees' point of view. Focus group interviews combined elements of both individual interviews and participant observations, where interaction among participants could be observed and noted. Morgan argued that focus groups provide opportunities for "exploring the research outcomes with the participants who in fact generated them" (p. 37).

No more than four students participated in focus groups for this study, which allowed each person opportunities to comment on each question. Single interviews were avoided in all but three instances, so all students had the opportunity to build on other interviewees' comments. In these instances, part of the students' interviews occurred in a focus group and part in an individual interview because time conflicts existed. I made no attempt to build consensus so each person's comments could be heard with minimal judgment by other participants or by me.

During the spring 1993 visit, I spent almost three days in Santa Clara, but arrived on a Thursday and no students agreed to Saturday interviews. Therefore, all focus groups were squeezed into one evening and one day. If one group wanted to talk longer, another group faced a shorter time slot. Several groups seemed to feel limited and rushed. The students responded to all questions, but insufficient time remained to answer questions about support students received or about the research process. USD interviews took place over a two week period, so participants were able to choose a time that easily fit their availability. Advanced scheduling and a longer second-year SCU site

visit allowed adequate time for interviews, therefore participants had enough time to respond to all questions.

The interviews were tape recorded and transcribed, which many authors recommended as providing the most effective data base for interview analysis (Merriam, 1988; Patton, 1990; Seidman, 1991). I listened to most tapes while reading the transcription, to hear participants' inflections and degrees of intensity.

Data Analysis

Wolcott (1988) stressed that doing write-up during fieldwork helps identify gaps through informal and formal interviews, questionnaires, journals, and other approaches. I followed the advice of Merriam (1988) who encouraged the use of member checks, defined as the process of involving the people who contributed data by "asking them if the results are plausible" (p. 169). Data were compiled and case-study drafts from each university written at the end of each academic year. Then study participants reviewed the drafts.

These case studies had a small self-selected population for each case, and had no control group. The data generated through the questionnaires were summarized through descriptive statistics that addressed the research topic. Healey (1984) described this use of statistical data as relevant "(1) when the researcher needs to summarize or describe the distribution of a single variable and (2) when the researcher wishes to understand the relationship between two or more variables" (p.3). Each year of the study, I summarized demographics and the pre-test and post-test scores from both questionnaires, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI), for the subjects at each university and within the total study. The non-experimental design could contribute to, but could not confirm, determining

cause and effect relationships between community service leadership and either moral judgment or cultural adaptability. I made additional summaries relative to the nominal variables, including gender, ethnicity, and year in school and to whether volunteers committed to an ongoing project or one-time event.

The mean scores were used not to estimate the mean for all college students, but to compare the mean scores of the participants in this study with the mean scores of other studies of university age students. Both questionnaires administered in this study have interval scales, so the mean was an appropriate measure of central tendency (Hinkle, Wiersma, Jurs, 1988). The standard deviations of the pre-test and post-test scores, using the paired sample t-test, indicated the average amount that scores in each case study deviated from the mean. This measure of dispersion also tested any statistical significance within the four case studies. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS for the Macintosh, 4.0) data analysis system was used to compute the data.

Data summaries included frequency distribution charts and percentile rankings. Howell (1989) described the percentile rank as "the point on the scale at or below which a given percentage of the scores fall" (p. 36). In addition, cumulative frequencies and cumulative percentages were calculated to determine how individual scores spread across the range of scores. I compiled demographic information for each case study and as combined data for all participants.

Analysis of Data Categories

The analysis of documents, journals, and surveys established the context for each of the four case studies. The interviews, journals and reflection papers helped me to analyze the impact community service had, as perceived by the student leaders, and to determine the types of support the

students received. The holistic and descriptive end product emerged through the questionnaires and study of thick descriptions from students who shared perceptions of their experiences.

The interpretive phase took place in two stages. Preliminary interpretation began at the end of the first year, to evaluate the direction of the original research plan. I was open to suggestions from participants about timing and approaches to the research. This allowed me to have an evolving plan, an advantage of the case study approach.

The second stage occurred at the end of the second year when the two new cases were interpreted separately. Then, all four cases were reinterpreted and compared. Yin (1984) stated replication logic in multiple experiments applied to multiple-case studies. The similarities or dissimilarities found in the multiple cases were used to support or contradict the initial intent of this study, to explore how community service impacted student development. While the community service settings remained consistent, the uniqueness of each programming year deserved exploration. At the end of the second year, I did case comparisons between universities and among the four cases.

The end product of this multiple case study was primarily descriptive with additional explanation and judgment, which Merriam (1988) recommended as appropriate "in presenting basic information about areas of education where little research has been conducted" (p. 27). She stated findings could lead to the development of substantive theory which "derives from practice and is in turn suitable for practical situations" (p. 57). The descriptions of each university program developed through analysis of project materials, structure, and content of the leadership development program. The impact of community service leadership emerged through analysis of the journals, focus group interviews, and two questionnaires. Triangulation occurred through this

methodological mix that employed "multiple methods, measures, researchers, and perspectives" (Patton, 1990, p. 187).

At the end of each academic year, descriptive statistical data from the surveys and questionnaires were compiled with differences noted between the SCU program and the USD program. Huck, Cormier, and Bounds stated the small size of the sample was not a problem for descriptive statistics (1974). The interval scales of the DIT and CCAI questionnaires had common, constant units of measurement which, combined with demographic variables, provided information for computing correlation coefficients (Hinkle, Wiersmal & Jurs, 1988).

Journal and reflection paper topics revealed student attitudes about cross-cultural experiences, thoughts about leadership opportunities and experiences, perceptions of personal change, and responses to societal issues. The 56 participants in this study had been encouraged to write about their thoughts and feelings occurring during the time they coordinated projects. The use of journal writing provided opportunities for the students to articulate connections between new information and what they already knew (Fulwiler, 1987, p. 5), while they identified questions, expressed feelings, and mapped their own progress. I used the journal and reflection paper entries to "take a cue from the ethnographer and develop a keener appreciation for context" (Wolcott, 1988, p. 204).

To begin the process of generating themes, I put 1992-93 SCU and USD journal and reflection paper excerpts into tentative categories. I then coded the compiled data and finally grouped the data within each category to generate themes. For example, the skills development category themes included communication, organizational, and time-management skills. The

resulting themes corresponded closely to themes generated during a spring 1992 pilot case study at USD.

All interviews were completed each year of the study, then the transcribed interviews were read and judged to identify interesting and meaningful passages. Seidman (1991) recommended researchers mark anything that caught their attention, in favor of erring on the side of inclusion. Because the initial interview question asked generally if and how community service experience made an impact, these first responses covered all categories and were cross-referenced.

After completing an analysis of the community service leaders' perceptions of their experiences at each university, comparative summaries were constructed with data from the two universities. The in-depth inquiry and direct quotations provided thick descriptions and context sensitivity. This proved to be particularly important because change was constant (Patton, 1990) in the context of community service leadership.

Research Validity and Reliability

Writers on the topic of qualitative research suggested different assumptions existed which called for diverse conceptualizations of validity and reliability. Guba and Lincoln (1990) developed the criterion of "trustworthiness" for judging qualitative research as opposed to the criteria for quantitative research. Trustworthiness includes: credibility as a parallel concept of internal validity; transferability or generalization instead of external validity; dependability as opposed to reliability; and confirmability in lieu of being value free.

- The research design for this study attempted to establish *credibility* by (a) gathering multiple sources of data over a two-year period and (b) checking preliminary data with stakeholders, both students and advisors.

- *Transferability* with this limited sample from two similar universities could not be concluded, but program personnel from other universities might decide that these research approaches could be used to study community service leaders in their own setting.
- The surveys, questionnaires, verbatim journal excerpts, and interviews were documented and compared to establish *dependability* by analyzing the multiple data sources for common themes and disparities.
- External reviewers audited journal and interview interpretations to establish research *confirmability*, and provided reality checks on themes and meaning. I found no related research in the literature that influenced my expectations, and I addressed potential researcher bias by remaining open to contrary findings. The open, hermeneutic process included involving the participants in joint, collaborative reconstruction of the emerging findings.

Credibility was threatened by maturation, because during the year between the pre-test and post-test numerous external events could have affected the subjects (Huck, Cormier, & Bounds, 1974). The possibility existed that subjects could have become test-wise from the first administration, although pre-tests and post-tests were administered nine months apart.

The research design took into consideration a potential for mortality, where subjects might stop participation. However, I anticipated over half of the pool of approximately 40 student leaders would remain involved from each university during the two years of the study.

I addressed limitations of the study during both the data compilation and analysis phases. Compilation of data from the interview focus groups presented a potential bias that was not ignored or represented as a "full spectrum of experiences and opinions" (Morgan, 1988, p. 45). The research

design did provide a selected comparison through using two university programs. Following Seidman's (1991) caution, I attempted to separate interviewing and analysis to avoid developing an "anticipatory frame of mind" (p. 13).

Duration of the Study

The study spanned the 1992-93 and 1993-94 academic years. Site visits occurred and program information was documented each fall as approved by Human Subjects Committees from both universities. I administered questionnaires, reviewed program materials, and held informal interviews with student leaders. Discussions with student leaders, advisors, and other persons who worked closely with the community service coordinators took place two to four times during the study. At the end of each academic year, I administered final questionnaires, collected journals and reflection papers, and completed focus group interviews, with all data collected by the end of May 1994.

Ethical Considerations

Student leaders understood their participation was voluntary and they could discontinue participation in the research at any time without consequences. Students participated for only one year in sharing their perceptions about the impact community service leadership had on them. As mentioned previously, some students who participated during the first year of the study and continued as community service leaders for a second year shared their perceptions about program structure, which I used for program description. Participants incurred no expense and understood I would make every effort to insure confidentiality.

All test results, journal entries or reflection papers, and group interview information were kept confidential. A code number identifying each participant

appeared on all questionnaires and other written information. I linked the code to a number in a file available only to me, which I used to categorize data according to demographic information and to identify and gather missing information.

Potential benefits existed both for subjects and for institutions of higher learning, in part because student community service leaders expressed interest in understanding their experiences. Participation in the study provided self-examination opportunities for the student leaders during their experiences and during group discussions at the end of the study. Some minimum risk existed because both the DIT and CCAI could raise issues for the students regarding their values and attitudes toward other people. Community service program advisors and I remained available to the students so they could process any concerns about the questionnaires.

USD student community service leaders who enrolled in the Leadership in Volunteerism seminar could choose not to participate in the research without impacting their grade. Although I facilitated the USD leadership seminar, a team of students and another advisor helped develop and present the content. I knew who participated in both the seminar and the research but questionnaire records were totally separate from the seminar records. The students who took this one-unit seminar submitted their own grade justification based on participating in the seminar sessions, fulfilling requirements to keep a journal, and completing a required number of field experience hours.

The Santa Clara program served as a model during the development of the USD community service program. I had visited the Santa Clara SCCAP office before being hired by USD and helped incorporate some SCU structure and process into the USD program. An additional personal connection existed

in that my son was a student community service project coordinator at SCU during the first year of the study and an assistant director during the second year. He did not participate in the study as an individual through filling out questionnaires, keeping a journal, or participating in a focus group interview. He did , however, contribute general information regarding the program in collaboration with other non-participant student leaders.

I conducted this study with my unwavering professional commitment to honest reporting of data and unbiased analysis. Any time I sensed a lack of objectivity, it was noted. A second reader analyzed the journals and transcriptions to check for thoroughness and consistency of classifications. The students and advisors, as co-researchers, helped evaluate the accuracy of my perceptions regarding the history, structure, the leadership development program content, and the data written as case studies. The following chapter presents the four case studies.

CHAPTER FOUR

INTRODUCTION TO FOUR CASE STUDIES

The two universities chosen for this study had similar demographics and student community service programs. Four groups of student leaders generated information for case studies during the year they directed a community service program or coordinated a project at either Santa Clara University (SCU) or the University of San Diego (USD). The USD program structure paralleled the SCU program, with a committee of students coordinating projects under the leadership of a student director.

The study continued for two years, resulting in a total of four case studies, two from each university. A description of each program provides a context for understanding data that emerged about the impact of community service leadership on student development. The student leaders completed a survey and filled out two questionnaires at the beginning and again at the end of the year that they participated in the study. The survey provided demographic data and questionnaires produced data for descriptive statistics on moral judgment and cross-cultural adaptability. Most students kept a journal or wrote reflection papers throughout the year and all participated in focus group interviews at the end of the year.

SANTA CLARA UNIVERSITY: YEAR ONE

Santa Clara Community Action Project History

Santa Clara University (SCU), the oldest private university on the west coast, was founded in 1851. Students initiated the Santa Clara Community

Action Project (SCCAP) twenty-seven years before this study began. The tradition of student run projects has continued throughout the existence of the program.

To commemorate their twenty-fifth anniversary in 1990, students wrote a history of SCCAP that served as source material for this section. SCCAP began in 1965 as a tutoring project and received club status in 1966 as the Santa Clara Christian Action Program. As student activism increased during the 1960s, SCCAP became a center for student protest and social action and the name changed to Santa Clara Community Action Program. Student volunteerism declined at SCU during the 1970s and early 1980s.

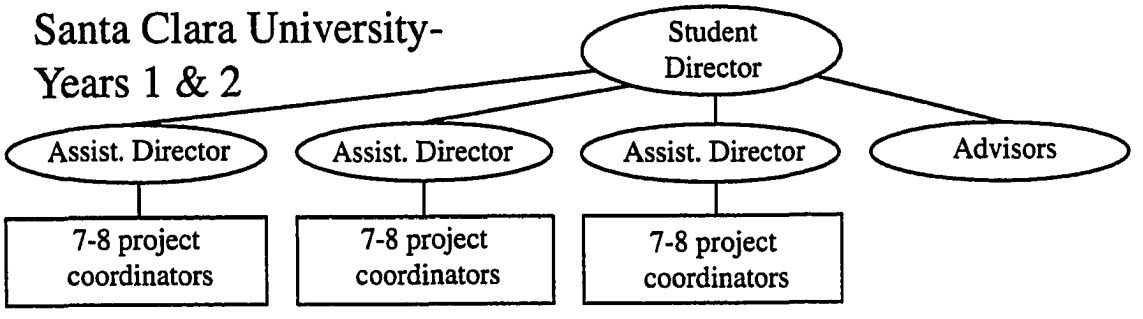
SCU became a coeducational institution four years before SCCAP was founded, but SCCAP remained male-dominated until 1971 when the first woman leader was chosen. Then gradually SCCAP changed to being a predominantly women's organization. It almost dissolved in the late 1970s due to students' shift away from political action. During the 1980s, students focused on "strict volunteerism," defined as direct service without the political action component. Most projects were based in already existing agency or school volunteer programs.

The amount of time SCCAP student leaders committed to their program increased to the level of other Associated Student (AS) stipended positions. Therefore, SCCAP directors and coordinators started receiving stipends in 1980 while the program was part of the Associated Student organization structure and funding process. The University began directly funding the program in 1985 when SCCAP moved from Associated Students club status to independent organization status. The purchase of a computer and the upgrading of vehicles, used by students driving to volunteer sites, helped modernize the program.

Since 1986, SCCAP has occupied a large room in the Student Center with open lounge and meeting areas, and with cubicle desk spaces for the directors and coordinators. One assistant director position was added during the 1989-90 academic year, and two assistant director positions added in 1991-92. Assistant directors each advised seven or eight project coordinators under leadership of the director. Student directors and coordinators kept office hours to staff the reception desk.

Figure 1.

SCU Santa Clara Community Action Program (SCCAP) structure: 1992-94.



In recent years, the director and assistant directors have planned and facilitated week-long orientations before the academic year began. Throughout the year, each assistant director led mandatory weekly meetings for the coordinators whom they advised. The director held monthly meetings with all SCCAP directors and coordinators.

Students described the first 25 years of this student run program as being "molded by the people within it." The unchangeable core of SCCAP remained "our commitment to serve those less fortunate than ourselves" as "why this organization was founded and. . .why it continues to be in existence." The SCCAP philosophy is described, in part, as

> an important part of the educational process that Santa Clara University offers. . .(which) combines theory with practice and creates a

> forum through which intellectual growth emerges out of reflection on everyday community life situations. (SCCAP is)...intrinsically educational through the social awareness it cultivates among students by offering them the opportunity for a deeper understanding of community problems...creates a supportive atmosphere in which students can have a powerful voice addressing social injustices...(and develop) real values that they will take with them into life after college.

Students led the SCCAP program from its inception. A SCU Student Development staff member advised the director and has met weekly with the student director in recent years. SCCAP projects had limited formal connection of community service-learning to the curriculum. Two Jesuit priests founded the East Side Project in 1986, to respond to nearby community needs and to develop service-learning placements for students in counseling, psychology, education, and other classes. The East Side Project and SCCAP collaborated on an ESL project and many SCCAP coordinators enrolled in the East Side "Faith, Justice, and Poverty" class. In 1991, SCU received a significant grant to institutionalize diversity.

Description of the 1992-93 SCU Program

The previous executive board and Student Development staff advisor chose the 1992-93 SCCAP director and assistant directors through an interview process. New directors then chose the new coordinators. All prospective coordinators submitted applications stating their interest in the position and prior SCCAP volunteer experience.

The new directors and coordinators attended a spring team-building retreat as part of an extensive training process. The SCCAP director participated in an annual retreat supported by the Center for Student

Leadership to educate leaders of "competence, conscience, and compassion." The retreat provided opportunities to learn about conflict resolution, qualities of leadership, program planning and management, and included a ropes course experience designed to build self-confidence and trust. The director facilitated a five-day training session for assistant directors in the fall, followed by a week of coordinator training including office management process, facilitation skills, and agency visits. They began the winter quarter with another overnight retreat. Student directors reported they had a great deal of autonomy in planning and implementing these training sessions as well as developing their budget.

All SCCAP directors and coordinators received a stipend each quarter to advise student coordinators or coordinate their own project. SCCAP coordinators volunteered within their project, staffed the office five hours each week, and attended weekly small group staff meetings, general monthly meetings, and retreats. The SCCAP program received funds from the SCU student activities' budget and from an endowment, with interest distributed on the basis of written proposals.

Coordinators recruited student volunteers at quarterly volunteer informational events, and throughout the year students volunteered through the SCCAP office. Students received class credit in two of the many East Side Projects. Some students "volunteered" as an alternative to fines for breaking university rules.

Interactions with community agencies constrained the initiative of project coordinators in situations where students volunteered in existing programs. In these cases, the agencies provided training and supervision, which limited SCCAP coordinators' contact once volunteers were placed.

SCCAP coordinators also initiated several new agency projects, but their connection with agency staff occurred primarily during the start-up period.

A new SCCAP position, Community Development Coordinator, focused on campus project development during 1992-93. The student who filled this position obtained information about the scope and effectiveness of SCCAP programming from the greater SCU community, including students in the Multicultural Center. This coordinator recommended SCCAP staff education be increased and communication directed toward the entire university community be improved. The Campus Opportunity Outreach League (COOL) Summit, a national training event, took place at SCU during the summer preceding this study. A number of SCCAP leaders attended.

Findings of the Study: SCU 1992-1993

Survey Summary

Survey data included demographic information and the influences parents may have had upon their childrens' participation in community service. Personal histories of volunteering included accounts of their first experiences as well as their college service. Students also offered reasons why they chose to become a community service leader.

Demographics

According to the survey responses of the 14 student leaders who participated in this study, eight coordinated ongoing projects with volunteers who made a weekly commitment, two coordinated one-time volunteers, one served as director and three were assistant directors. One of these students came from the sophomore class, along with eight juniors and five seniors. A total of 12 women and two men remained as participants throughout the year. The SCU participants included three Asians, nine White, and two Latino students.

Volunteer Histories

SCU student coordinators identified their major reasons for volunteering as helping those in need and having ideas for change. One student wished to "make a difference in a world I found extremely unfair and frustrating;" another cited "frustration regarding homophobic discriminating response from those I met." Several coordinators mentioned curiosity about SCCAP, others wanted to use their college years constructively. Seven of the 14 participants stated their parents' volunteerism had influenced them. They generally described their parents as good role models; one student stated that his mother provided the most influence.

The survey also asked about the participants' first volunteer experience. Six SCU students stated they began to volunteer before the age of 10: in nursing homes, as church baby-sitters, and at a soup kitchen with their family. Five SCU students volunteered between ages 12 and 14 in similar settings, and three began in high school, including service in a hospital setting. Therefore, all 14 participants in the study had previous experiences as volunteers.

Almost all students brought extensive SCCAP background to their role as coordinator or director. Their experiences spanned from three or four programs to as many as seven one-time or ongoing commitments. One student who had extensive experience in a program stated he applied for the coordinator position to improve the program. Another individual described increasing dissatisfaction with volunteering and wanted to change the system, "to bring together the Santa Clara Community with the community at large." Major reasons for deciding to become a leader included: desire for more responsibility, interest in new and exciting SCCAP involvement, and hope to "contribute more." Three students cited encouragement from past SCCAP

leaders, while three others mentioned past leaders as inspiring them. Other respondents saw SCCAP leadership as an opportunity for self improvement: to build confidence, to become more aware, and to be part of a group taking community service seriously.

Questionnaires

The two questionnaires used for this study, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the Cross-Cultural Interest Inventory (CCAI), were administered at the beginning and the end of the academic year. The DIT and CCAI scores from all case studies were interpreted in the cross case analysis, which will be reported in Chapter Five.

Rest (1979) designed the DIT to measure moral judgment. In 1991, Pascarella & Terenzini's secondary analysis of Rest's data on DIT P-scores of college students placed the mean DIT P-score of private universities at 40.16 and for church affiliated liberal arts colleges P= 50.49. Santa Clara fit the private university categories and church affiliated, although not a liberal arts college. The SCU mean score of the DIT Pre-test was 54.76; the mean score of the post-test, 53.8. Both pre- and post test scores exceeded the previously established research mean scores, but the mean post-test score dropped by .96 points.

The Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) encompassed four categories: Emotional Resilience (ER), Flexibility/Openness (FO), Perceptual Acuity (PAC), and Personal Autonomy (PA).

Pre-test and post-test mean scores for community service coordinators, compared to the mean student scores established in the original CCAI research and model development, are reported in Table 3. All mean scores for SCU students increased and all SCU mean scores for both pre-test and post-test were higher than mean scores generated by students in the original study.

Table 3.

SCU Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory scores: 1992-1993

Category	Initial research Student mean	SCU/1 Pre-test	SCU/1 Post-test	Change
ER	79.2	81.14	84.21	+3.07
FO	65.35	72.28	73.86	+1.58
PAC	46.86	48.36	49.14	+0.78
PA	32.91	35.42	36.64	+1.22

Journals/Reflection Papers

Eight students in the study wrote mid-year reflection papers and one submitted a journal. Every reflection paper described the ambivalence felt by coordinators at the midpoint of their year-long commitment, especially about administrative demands. They also complained about the stress caused by the amount of work and the numbers of problems they experienced. Although exciting and rewarding moments came, one student wished she had fewer demands and more quality experiences.

Coordinators said they provided necessary organization at the beginning of their projects. A resident at the homeless shelter told one coordinator that other volunteers "wouldn't know what to do" without the coordinators help. The homeless woman noticed that experienced students, like the coordinators, helped new volunteers. Several coordinators realized they could not satisfy all the demands of their positions. Others described running a program as "more rewarding than I ever imagined. . .the greatest feeling ever" or found it difficult to maintain balance while trying be all things to all people. It became obvious it was not possible to "be perfect."

Almost every reflection paper recounted a deeper understanding of and commitment to issues. This increased awareness of "social problems, our country and the world" made a student want to make a "significant change in our society." She wondered how people could "close their eyes to the poverty, sickness, and hunger around us every day." Others found a deeper purpose in addressing people's special needs and the effects of social problems. Frustrations surfaced for a student about not being "able to solve all the problems single handedly" because "hunger and homelessness have been around since Jesus' time and though I can make a few people's lives better, I cannot end this problem. This is frustrating because I must admit my powerlessness." Journal entries described struggles with program participants and frustrations with volunteers, although one student saw "things coming together." Many of the thoughts students shared initially through journals or reflection papers expanded during the May interviews.

Interviews

I began each focus group interview by asking for students' first thoughts about the impact of their community service leadership. All but one of the five focus groups identified learning about social issues as a major reason they grew. Individuals from every group discussed ways they changed personally, including their decision-making approaches and skills development. They cited the power of learning through experience. Themes addressed during this general discussion included: leadership and management; skills and knowledge; perceptions of others; influence on others; and decision-making. Finally, students shared their thoughts on the support they received and their feelings about participating in the study.

Leadership and Management

Disagreement existed about the vision for SCCAP. Directors felt they had one vision and coordinators had another. One director expanded upon this topic, stating "I've learned a lot about working with someone who has a certain vision and trying to get it to coincide with the rest of our lines of thinking where we see SCCAP going." The need for collaboration emerged, described as the capacity "to be supportive and express my opinions and hear the other person's side and come to a compromise."

The director and assistant directors expressed frustrations about criticisms they received from coordinators because "we were doing things without them" or making decisions without their input, yet only a few people attended when the directors invited coordinators to board meetings or held special planning meetings. While they did not reach consensus about the vision, most student participants did agree leadership involved team building and educating others.

Working within structured organizations provided new experiences for most coordinators. One student described the leadership experience as lacking creativity, several others described their experiences as complex, constraining, or entailing overwhelming responsibilities. Another participant saw community service leadership as being the same as in any other organization. However, community service positions provided opportunities to deal with people on multiple levels, which changed some coordinators' perceptions of leadership. "I didn't know volunteers needed so much," someone stated.

The SCU participants closely linked education and leadership. One student felt community based leadership "opened my eyes to realities in the world." Another student presented a residence hall program about literacy. He did "a little bit of research," talked to the ESL learners in his program, and

shared program information through a presentation. Although he "may not have been as accurate as an expert," he became informed enough about the issue to reach others.

All of the directors and several of the coordinators stated they hoped to stimulate the initiative of other coordinators and the volunteers. One coordinator felt she encouraged volunteers to take initiative by taking initiative herself. Another coordinator described how volunteers helped plan activities for a program, then the agency contact person rejected the volunteers' ideas. The coordinator continued to encourage volunteer innovation despite the agency's resistance to change.

Skills and Knowledge

Communication skills. Participants in all focus group interviews emphasized how their communication skills increased. They became more aware of others' needs and "where people were coming from" by accepting the priorities of others and understanding different situations. One student coordinator felt, if she listened effectively, volunteers shared their problems and sometimes verbalized their lack of self-esteem. The coordinators cared about volunteers but also became frustrated with them. Coordinators said they developed patience and openness in their communication styles. One specifically described "active listening" as her primary area of growth.

The importance of clarity in communication became evident to one man who learned that "if you don't get it across the first time the message is lost." A woman responded "even if you think you're clear, it's not taken the way you want it to be. . .and it's not until another week or two that it comes out that you miscommunicated." Students also emphasized the importance of good timing for effective communication.

A number of students struggled with handling confrontation, but said they learned to deal with it by developing flexibility and a cooperative attitude. Coordinators identified increased confidence and trust in themselves as outcomes of their experience. Several students lived with frustrations more easily as the year progressed. One woman described a new-found ability to be assertive, which was "not my usual character."

The SCCAP program directors found it difficult to accept criticism and not take comments personally. They felt much of their communication with coordinators involved complaints about SCCAP administration.

Organizational skills. Many of the study participants brought prior leadership experience, yet learned community service leadership required different and more demanding skills. They identified the diverse populations with whom they interacted: persons who received service, agency coordinators, volunteers, liaisons at the university, and other SCCAP leaders. The service events and activities were larger and more complex. They found it difficult to "be creative" when getting projects started and operational: contacting the agencies, recruiting and orienting volunteers, starting and maintaining the projects, and planning and implementing events. They bore responsibility to "do all those things" that helped them learn new organizational skills and several felt at fault if things did not work. One person stressed that processing the "consequences of my actions" increased the amount of personal learning.

All coordinators mentioned the demanding volunteer recruitment and placement process. However, they spent nearly equal amounts of energy working with other SCCAP leaders. Directors tried to build community among all the SCCAP leaders and several coordinators talked about building

community among their volunteers. Several students mentioned increased ability to network with others.

In addition to internal SCCAP organizational demands, a number of coordinators talked about the difficulty of being both a leader and a volunteer in their community service projects. They thought the two roles often conflicted and they neglected volunteer responsibilities, to the extent that one coordinator described leadership responsibilities as constraining her from personally meeting the needs of those served.

Time management. Two general themes emerged regarding time management: (a) balancing time for both project management and needs of those being served, and (b) balancing time for SCCAP with the other demands of college life.

The directors found it difficult to respond to the needs of all the SCCAP staff. Most coordinators found the time demands for coordinating their projects exceeded what they had expected, but they soon became more realistic about the job scope. Coordinators agreed they could not accomplish their ideal goals. One person decided to concentrate on just a "couple of things," while another found it helpful to set clear boundaries. Another coordinator expressed frustration about administrative demands when she wanted to work with the people receiving service. She had expected to be a model for the volunteers and not so involved in management tasks.

Managing time for SCCAP along with other time demands became crucial for one coordinator who "paid for it academically." Another student, who considered herself well organized, called her project "a massive undertaking testing my organizational skills" because she felt if she didn't do what was needed, no one else would do it and everything would "fall apart." She strategized by dealing with things right away, because "if you put it away it will

go to the bottom of your pile and it will never get done." A coordinator became frustrated when she wanted to find out about other community issues, but had no time to research them. Overall, coordinators learned they couldn't "do everything."

Perceptions of Others

I asked the community service leaders if they recognized any changes in their perceptions of others. They discussed perceptions of staff, volunteers, other SCU students and administration, and agency liaisons. They talked most extensively about those persons whom the programs served.

SCCAP coordinators and volunteers. Directors discussed their perceptions of the SCCAP coordinators in depth and agreed they changed their initial opinions completely. They felt pressure from the coordinators, as one director said, "I thought I'd have to be a certain way or something." Then she discovered "They wanted my input! They are new at this as well." One coordinator described some SCCAP staff as "mysterious people" who were hard to understand. She wondered why they had such a "passion for social justice" and said "these folks do kind of get me exploring myself." She described her experience as ". . .diving into a pool or a lake at night. Getting yourself enmeshed in the uncomfortable and confusing and working and struggling blindly, sometimes, to understand."

Coordinators also commented on how hard it had been to find commonalties with other SCCAP members, including the other coordinators and the directors. Once they found a common view, they became very good friends.

Coordinators talked about perceptions of their volunteers. A project coordinator where some students received course credit felt only those volunteering without credit were "really interested in the community service."

He conceded that a student might come back to volunteer after he or she met course requirements, but generally felt people who:

> . . .pick this up because my program is required for class. . .get nothing out of it except maybe a couple of reflection papers, but there's no feeling in those reflection papers. . . .I personally don't think the initial motivation is good.

Volunteers also had preconceived perceptions about coordinators. A sophomore coordinator for a homeless shelter project surprised her volunteers. "They thought I was graduating and I was this turbo-experienced leader" and I decided this was "a good reality for students on campus to understand age doesn't really say how well you are going to be able to lead a group."

University and agency administrators. Some students thought university administrators were unapproachable, but by year's end stated "not any more." Some coordinators developed negative perceptions of community organizations after communication broke down with agency liaisons. Several project coordinators questioned whether agency staff saw student volunteers as useful. In an agency serving elderly immigrants and refugees, the project coordinator became uncomfortable when she thought agency staff treated senior citizens like children, in a condescending manner.

Recipients of service. The coordinators drastically changed their perceptions about people served by the programs, partly by observing the volunteers' experiences. Students moved beyond disillusionment toward thinking about their potential for making changes in their community. All but one program coordinator heard words of appreciation and encouragement from program recipients, something they had not expected.

Some student volunteers said they had limited or no contact with ethnic groups before volunteering. Coordinators felt this lack of exposure did not pose

problems for most volunteers. However, an assistant director described herself as having "a hard time relating to patients" when she volunteered for a project serving developmentally disabled persons. Patients came to campus for an annual Mass and picnic, and she "got matched up with someone who was the antithesis of what I always perceived. . .he was extremely talkative, extremely friendly, very cooperative and. . .really made a difference in my life because he especially changed my perception." Other volunteers had less positive experiences. The patients included people who couldn't speak or who remained confined to a wheel chair. Earlier in the year the coordinator noticed that the group of volunteers had been larger. He remembered how he "tried to watch reactions of volunteers" when they visited wards for disabled infants and saw the experience as "very emotionally challenging. . . .I think I lost several people there."

Juvenile offenders comprised another particularly challenging population for SCU students. Students volunteering at Juvenile Hall questioned why so many Latino youths joined gangs. The project coordinator said volunteers first talked about their own stereotypes, then shifted to discussions of breakdown in the family structure and culture. Members of MEChA, Movimiento Estudiantil de Chicanos de Aztlán, volunteered in the same facility but separate from the SCCAP project and never interacted with SCCAP project volunteers. In retrospect the coordinator thought it would have been "something really worthwhile" if the groups had worked together.

Two focus groups exchanged stories about volunteers and those they served, especially refugee senior citizens and homeless. The refugee project coordinator described incredible experiences which occurred when these refugees "had to give up their home and leave or they'd be killed." She explained that these people had real jobs in their own countries; one man had

been a professor. The project coordinator and volunteers learned about cultural traditions of Asians, particularly how families treated their elderly members with great respect. They compared Asian attitudes with those of the United States, where senior citizens are "shut away in nursing homes" and treated like children.

People living at the homeless shelter also told their stories to the volunteers. The shelter project coordinator said the volunteers discovered what homeless persons faced in ". . .the systems or institutions that they have to go through." She described herself as "more realistic" and reflected "I don't know if I like that or not." The coordinator also talked about her fear of African-American men and she "lost a lot of stereotypes" after getting to know them. "They are the greatest." She and volunteers at the homeless shelter experienced what she perceived as reverse discrimination. "I did get a lot of flack for being from Santa Clara and being from such a prestigious school," said the coordinator who felt she "was always trying to defend my own socioeconomic background." She told the people in the shelter about being on financial aid and recalled saying "it doesn't matter that my parents have a lot of money, when I get out of college I'm gonna be in a situation just like all of them were at one point in their lives."

Socioeconomic issues also surfaced as coordinators described their experiences working with youth in public and private schools. One coordinator said she had never been in a public junior high or high school and found "it was just really weird" to learn about the "whole peer pressure scene." She felt she had no realistic perceptions about the students in public schools:

> It didn't really hit me until I was actually in the eighth grade classroom and kids were saying stuff that they had experience with or saying. . .'my

friend might be pregnant'. . .and they're 14 years old. . . .in my little Catholic school environment, that's just not the way things were.

In spite of her experience this coordinator still wanted to believe "kids are just innocent little kids." Another student coordinated a private school program for children who had lost a parent through death or divorce. She expressed disappointment that the homogeneous group of White children tended "to be disrespectful" and didn't "appreciate me being there." The experience "wasn't fulfilling, it was more like taking something out of me." Her expectation that the students would want to share and express their feelings shattered. A contrasting, positive experience occurred for her with her later project, an ethnically diverse Girl Scout troop.

Ethnic and gender issues surfaced for a coordinator who worked with AIDS education. She learned to "work within the cultural experience that people have or where they are coming from" because Latino and Asian women were not brought up to talk about safe sex or to be assertive in their sexual relationships. She tried to approach AIDS information from their point of view and not insult their culture, which provided an "interesting challenge. . .to realize that each culture has [its] own real ingrained set of attitudes." Her interest in AIDS education and her commitment to "stand up and say something" stemmed from hearing homophobic comments. The project leadership experience increased her commitment to protest all sexism, especially related to women's issues.

Influence on Others.

Directors felt "good that more people applied for SCCAP leadership positions than ever before" in spring 1993, including active students in Associated Students, Black Student Union, and sororities. The directors questioned whether they influenced coordinators to become more advocacy-

oriented, describing half of them as activists and the others as "not ready." The directors decided timing was crucial in encouraging advocacy, especially for coordinators leery of being political.

Coordinators in three focus groups talked about their influence on volunteers. It distressed them when volunteers described their experience as "positive." "What is that?" asked a coordinator who said volunteers' descriptions of their experiences seemed simplistic. She felt she should have given more information to volunteers about issues and the importance of justice. Several focus group participants wished they had challenged volunteers more, even to the extent of being confrontational. Another coordinator questioned whether she influenced volunteers directly because the "biggest thing I did was open doors for them." Once things were "put together . . . I hung out in the background."

A sophomore felt she influenced younger students to consider leadership because she had coordinated a homeless shelter project at an earlier age than her peers thought possible. In a particularly difficult program at Juvenile Hall, the coordinator thought volunteers continued to go partly because of her positive attitude. She spoke about empowering her volunteers to generate program ideas and make decisions as a team. Other coordinators felt sure they encouraged students not yet volunteering to at least consider becoming involved in service programs.

Decision-making

Participants in the study described both ethical and career decisions they made during their year as community service leaders. They shared a need to act upon what they saw as socially just, get to root causes, be more realistic about society, and help those in need to get out of situations. Being in agencies and schools where they addressed societal needs made students feel

more aware of local and national issues. As a student began to consider more sides of issues, the feeling of being "old and mature and business-like" developed. Another student began to be:

> . . .more aware of when I'm being ethical. . . .I grew up in the Catholic church and that's so right and wrong. And now I've come to the realization that you can do the wrong thing for the right reasons and right thing for the wrong reasons. . .it brings out more questions on what is ethical, what is right, when you see the situations of masses of people. You know, like how can this be right?

These insights influenced deep concerns about careers and life directions. Many students projected a life long commitment to community service. One director accepted a Teach for America assignment just days before the focus group interviews; another had thought about applying to the Peace Corps, but now felt ready to move on it. Others planned to pursue careers as a homeless advocate, a program administrator for underprivileged children, a volunteer administrator, or a student development advisor. One student decided the coordinator experience helped her understand the types of situations she wanted in her career. She talked about not only career choice but the morality of an employer's goals, specifically in the television industry where she loved her job, but wondered "how can I sit there and put this stuff out. . .directly affecting people. . .and make this trash."

Two coordinators talked about applying for post-baccalaureate volunteer positions although both of their parents had expressed disapproval about being volunteers all their lives. One mother encouraged her daughter to think about making money. A student reflected upon her future direction, asking herself "do I want a career or a family or can I balance it?" while another said "I'm not just going to get married and live happily ever after."

Many issues became more confusing, because as one student reflected "I don't always have the answers."

SCCAP coordinators' priorities changed as they became more involved in community service. They became less interested in friends who did not share the "same priorities." "You can't help redefining. . .what's important to you" one reflected. They described new abilities to trust themselves and to put less emphasis on money. Several students felt anxious about their indecisions regarding life goals, but said SCCAP involvement provided a foundation for wrestling with decisions.

Support for Community Service Leaders

Only the director mentioned that she received support from the Student Development advisor, with whom she had regularly scheduled meetings. She described the advisor as very supportive, but said she did not work with her very much beyond their weekly meetings. Coordinators strongly acknowledged the director's availability and openness to their needs and stated she inspired commitment in all of the SCCAP leaders.

The assistant directors also received praise from coordinators who felt helped by them on a one-to-one basis. One student talked about the availability of her assistant director, who remained open and willing to share. Each of the three assistant directors met weekly with a group of coordinators, so individual coordinators knew they had a contact person for specific problems or concerns.

All directors and coordinators identified support for one another as most important. Coordinators stated "people would listen anytime" and described members of one department as "wonderful" and concerned about how other coordinators felt. "I just love all the people in SCCAP," an appreciative coordinator repeated several times. The enthusiasm of staff members

energized others and they looked at one another as resources. The directors felt they also received reciprocal support, although several coordinators intimidated the directors initially, before they became supportive team members.

One coordinator's faith gave her strength. She said "when things would get pretty down, I would just pray about it and know that things would work out the way they were supposed to." Other sources of support included friends, roommates, and one agency contact.

Research Process

The final interview generated the most enthusiasm when participants commented about their responses to this study. Students described the interview as "good reflection time" which "makes you think." Several comments referred to the interview as pulling together what they had thought about throughout the year; others said the focus group interview provided the first time they could relax and reflect. The students felt they lacked time for reflection during the year, although a coordinator who first said she had no time to reflect admitted maybe she just "did not make it happen." Another student stated "I don't think I've asked myself the good questions that you have [asked us.]" They validated the importance of talking or writing about their personal experiences.

Keeping a journal or writing a reflection paper proved a very uneven commitment for the SCCAP members and only eight of them complied with this request. The SCCAP director stated it had been necessary to structure time to write reflections during a planning retreat. One student turned in a journal at the end of the year. Several said they already kept a journal for a class or "I'm not the journaling type."

Comments about the questionnaires ranged from enthusiasm to distrust. The students expressed general negative feelings about any standardized tests. Personalized evaluation made more sense to several students and one student in particular stated real-life decision making provided a more valid measure of moral judgment than any questionnaire. One student questioned whether accuracy was possible when she prioritized responses in the DIT. Before completing the DIT in the spring, students generally agreed the questionnaire was difficult. Another student said she was curious about any changes in her decisions, then realized her answers were faith-based and since her faith had not changed, her answers would not change.

Members of one focus group described discomfort with the CCAI because it was self-judged. Directors felt anxiety because they thought as they grew in understanding, they would make tougher judgments and receive lower scores. Other students credited the CCAI for making them think.

In general, the tests seemed "OK" if study participants got the results, because students were curious about the pre-test and post-test scores. Filling out the questionnaires appeared to be the greatest challenge at the end of the year. Students comfortably made time for the interview, but balked at the amount of time it took to fill out the CCAI and DIT. An assistant director observed that since participants did choose to participate in the study, it must have "clicked" as a good thing to do.

UNIVERSITY OF SAN DIEGO: YEAR ONE

USD Community Service History

The University of San Diego (USD) became a co-educational institution of higher learning in 1972 with the merger of San Diego College for Women, College for Men, and School of Law. Although USD students engaged in community service activity from the University's founding, the current centralized structure within the Associated Students (AS) Community Service Program began in 1986. The thrust for USD's community service program came from administration and faculty. The USD President served as a charter member of Campus Compact, a coalition of university presidents dedicated to encouraging student community service involvement. The Vice President of Academic Affairs helped initiate the USD Social Issues Committee. This Committee of faculty, administration, and several students recommended a half-time position be established during the 1986-87 academic year to encourage student interest in community service.

Before 1986, the Associated Students (AS) Community Service Director coordinated one project each semester, Senior Outreach weekend where teams of students helped senior citizens with tasks they could no longer handle. Over the next six years, significant changes occurred within the structure and in the number of student community service projects. Students initiated two community service projects during the initial year of expansion and the number grew to 14 by 1992. The students stated they wanted to give direct service and not be involved with advocacy. The AS paid for project supplies, funded a stipend for the AS Community Service Director, then added a stipend

for a new AS Assistant Director position in the fall of 1989. All Community Service Directors attended Associated Students retreats.

A Community Service Center was established in the University Center in 1990, the only year a man served as AS Director of Community Service. During the first four years of program expansion at least one third of the coordinators had been men. Since then, between two to five men have coordinated projects each year in a Community Service Committee of between 25 to 30 coordinators.

The initial half-time staff position, Director of Volunteer Resources, became full-time within two years. Paid staff expanded to three full-time people by fall 1991, by adding an assistant director and a secretary. The Volunteer Resources Office received nine grants during the first six years which helped fund project development. The move to a Community Service Center provided office space for the Assistant Director of Volunteer Resources, a meeting area, and desk space for student directors and project coordinators. By the time of this study, two graduate students and four work-study students augmented the staff each academic year.

When the Community Service Center opened, the Volunteer Resources Director and Assistant Director trained and advised project coordinators; the AS Community Service Director ran meetings and coordinated recruitment, recognition, and special events. A federal Student Literacy Corps (SLC) grant subsidized a graduate assistant who advised literacy coordinators and volunteers. The SLC grant set boundaries for literacy project coordinators by linking with course credit and limiting some of their autonomy.

In the 1991-1992 academic year, most of the 14 projects had two or more coordinators. The students requested a seminar on community service leadership, which was offered as one unit of credit for attending a 12 hour

seminar and completing a minimum of 28 field experience hours during the semester. A private charity funded the new Linda Vista KIDS project, adding another half-time position to develop the project and advise the KIDS coordinators. USD received a grant in 1992 to institutionalize diversity, which supported some community service efforts.

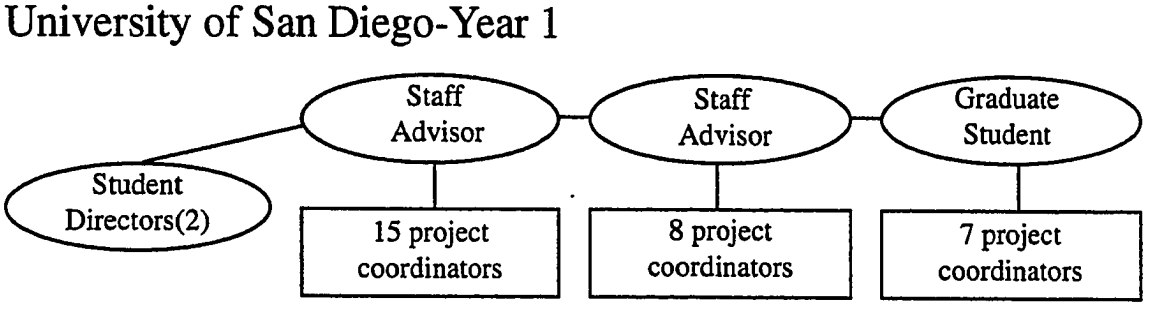
Description of the 1992-93 USD Program

The Associated Students executive committee chose the AS Community Service Director and Assistant Director by the end of the spring semester. The Director, a transfer student, had been active in community service at another university and the Assistant Director served as a former USD project coordinator. USD directors were structurally under the AS Vice President of programming with over 30 other program directors.

Student directors ran the Community Service meetings and planned special events, but did not advise project coordinators. Six projects received grant funding, subsidizing one graduate student who helped students develop projects and advised them throughout the year. The Assistant Volunteer Resources Director advised all other projects, except two advised by the Director. Literacy and mentoring volunteers could receive degree credit by attending field experience seminars in conjunction with their volunteer work.

Figure 2.

USC Community Service Committee structure: 1992-93.



The "Leadership through volunteerism" seminar began at the first overnight orientation retreat for AS Community Service student leaders and continued through the semester. The full-time staff and graduate students facilitated discussions about leadership and experiential learning, sessions on diversity, and skill development. Students attended a day long reorientation retreat at the beginning of spring semester.

Although most projects connected to an existing agency, coordinators managed some USD community service projects by assuming responsibility for training, supervision, and reflection. A School of Education instructor facilitated the seminar for coordinators and volunteers in the six literacy or recreation projects where students received credit.

Two or more coordinators assumed responsibility for most projects. USD coordinators were not required to keep office hours and received clerical assistance from paid work-study students. The AS Director and Assistant Director kept five office hours each week. The Volunteer Resources Assistant Director, graduate assistant, and work-study students staffed the Community Service Center.

An extensive restructuring took place at the end of the year and students redefined the role of AS community service directors. Students and staff wanted the directors to assume major responsibility for advising student coordinators. External consultants from the Campus Opportunity Outreach League (COOL) came to assist with restructuring toward student advising. This process provided additional evaluation and reflection opportunities for community service directors and coordinators.

Findings of the Study

Survey Summary

Surveys solicited demographic information and volunteer histories which included parental influence on community service, first volunteer and first college volunteer experiences, and reasons for choosing to become a community service leader.

Demographics

Of the 14 USD participants, 10 coordinated volunteers who made an ongoing commitment and four coordinated one-time volunteers. The study included nine women and five men, one of whom was Black, eight were White, and five were Latino. Participants included two sophomores, eight juniors, and four seniors.

Volunteer Histories

USD students cited the following reasons for volunteering: desiring to make a difference, wanting to help others who were less advantaged, and believing "it's my way of life. . . .I was put on this earth to serve. . . ."

Five USD students said their parents influenced them as volunteers, with descriptions ranging from "they were always involved" to "not until recently." Two said their parents had no influence and seven wrote N/A or made no comment.

A majority of USD students began volunteering in high school. Two started in junior high and another in the second or third grade. Those who volunteered first in high school served in soup kitchens and churches; activities included tutoring and coaching. Three students volunteered for the first time in college, one through a Social Problems class and two through the Student Literacy Corps. Six students identified the Student Literacy Corps as their first USD volunteer experience. Only one USD first-time volunteer

participated through a class requirement and all others began with one-time projects.

Students described why they applied for a leadership position. Two-thirds of the respondents moved from project volunteer to coordinator role for more responsibility or to make sure the project continued. Past coordinators asked two students to consider a position. Other reasons for seeking leadership included a desire to learn, make a difference, or do something more meaningful in college.

Questionnaires

Students completed the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the Cross-Cultural Interest Inventory (CCAI) at the beginning and the end of the academic year. The DIT was designed to measure moral judgment. Pascarella & Terenzini (1991).did a secondary analysis on previous research to determine the mean DIT P-score of private universities as 40.16 and for church affiliated liberal arts colleges P= 50.49 The students from USD, a private university and church affiliated but not a liberal arts college had a DIT Pre-test mean score of 45.99 and a post-test mean score of 49.70, with an increase of 3.71 points.

The four categories of the CCAI are Emotional Resilience (ER), Flexibility/Openness (FO), Perceptual Acuity (PAC), and Personal Autonomy (PA). The following pre-test and post-test scores of student community service coordinators are compared with the mean student scores from the original CCAI study.

All Pre-test and Post-test mean scores exceeded student mean scores from the original study and all but one post-test mean score increased from the pre-test means.

Table 4.

USD Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory scores: 1992-1993.

Category	Student mean	USD/1 Pre-test	USD/1 Post-test	Change
ER	79.20	82.78	84.28	+1.50
FO	65.35	73.92	74.43	+0.51
PAC	46.86	49.36	49.86	+0.50
PA	32.91	35.0	34.21	-0.79

Journals

All USD students kept journals throughout the year. In addition to their thoughts about leadership and skills, they reflected on their perceptions of others and their influence on others.

Leadership

Of the 14 USD participants, only four used the terms leader or leadership. One man wrote about the incredible power of focused energy, which if channeled in today's world, "the possibilities would be endless." Several students struggled with the ambiguity of being a leader. Another man expressed excitement about a "servant leader" workshop and being both a leader and a follower among his peers. Students asked questions about their responsibilities: "Is it delegating?" and "Was it my fault that problems arose?" Several women judged themselves as either ineffective, overwhelmed by "being in the middle," or not seen as an authority. One man found followers to be crucial, "everyone in the program is a valuable resource for the enhancement and growth of the entire project. . .all have something to contribute."

Skills and Knowledge

During the first semester, coordinators identified skills they did not think were well honed. Volunteer recruitment and retention topped the list of

concerns, as did time management. Six coordinators who worked together found it hard to clarify their roles and arrange meeting times. Disorganization bothered most students, and one person described this as "moments that build character."

Toward the middle of the first semester, a woman noted "my self confidence and belief in volunteerism has soared." Students commented about addressing problems, dealing with conflict, and understanding the importance of structure for their projects. Several coordinators seemed pleased about becoming more interactive and better team members.

Coordination improved the second semester. After attending a COOL Conference, three students described how important advocacy had become for them. Pride in good organization and attention to detail prompted comments like, "I slowly got the hang of things" and "the lessons that I have learned from volunteering could have never been taught in the classroom."

Perceptions of Others

The most frequent journal entries referred to students' changing perceptions, primarily about volunteers and populations served.

Volunteers. Coordinators successfully recruited students from under-represented populations and interactions with these new volunteers helped coordinators see the uniqueness of each person and of their experiences. Coordinators realized each mentor "breathes personality and flavor into the program." A "strange thing" happened for a coordinator when an African-American student described feeling "out of place" at USD. He saw how unrealistic he had been, to think that others' USD experiences were as equally "pleasant as mine."

A newly recruited volunteer seemed shy, "not the volunteer type person." When the volunteer proved very reliable, the coordinator decided

maybe "there is not a strict volunteer type of person." Coordinators expressed disappointment when USD students had "lame excuses for not joining" or broke volunteer commitments. They worried that other potential volunteers would "probably flake," too. They discovered that their friends who volunteered tended to bend the rules, making coordinators uncomfortable.

A joint volunteer project with a Tijuana university prompted long entries about the required five hundred hours of service expected of Mexican university students prior to graduation. USD questioned whether Mexican students would do community service without the requirement, but felt "maybe it's better it get done than it be voluntary."

Recipients of service. Coordinators expressed surprise about junior high students being attuned to world events and so interested in marine studies during a field trip to a tide pool. Knowing the childrens' poor family situations and limited resources, coordinators marveled at how they enjoyed the "simple pleasures in life." A coordinator discovered she needed "to go in with an open mind and a friendly attitude" then said, "I don't think they will ever realize how much they taught me or how much they mean to me." Coordinators became distressed when they saw racial tensions "between the Asian and the Hispanic kids." Gang activity became real when animosity between the groups disrupted a tutoring program. A coordinator in a housing development tutoring project judged one single mother as "weird" because she wouldn't let her daughter "be a kid." Later the coordinator wrote "come to think of it, I'd probably be even more stressed out and short-tempered if I was a single mom and a student."

Students interacted with new populations. A coordinator wrote that AIDS "seemed very mysterious," then described visiting a group residence as a very emotional experience which opened her mind. Another felt enriched by

learning about the spirituality of the American Indian culture. One man questioned whom the school system benefited when a junior high administrator excluded a Severely Emotionally Disturbed (SED) student from a USD project and the "many important experiences that all kids need."

Influence on Others

Coordinators enthusiastically reported observations of neighborhood youth with USD mentors, tutors, and after-school recreation volunteers. A journal entry described a newly arrived refugee child who changed unruly behavior and took new interest in learning. Several coordinators felt volunteers did not know "how we impacted these students lives" as they gained confidence through USD project activities. Coordinators agreed USD students and neighborhood children learned from each other.

Staff in the San Diego Housing Commission told coordinators they hoped to replicate the USD literacy project. A public school teacher said she found "hope left in the world" after she observed USD volunteers.

Interviews

As in the journals, themes emerged including leadership, skills, decision-making, perceptions of and influence on others. The initial focus group question asked for general comments about their experience. Students described rewards and frustrations as they responded to new situations, experimented with ideas, and took chances. One student learned "by falling on my face" and "thinking on my feet." A woman benefited by seeing "the bureaucratic things that have to take place. . .with different agencies and funding" as useful knowledge in any career.

"Behind the scenes" needs surprised most leaders as they gained a different perspective than being volunteers. Confusion and fright overwhelmed one new coordinator who felt "I was in way over my head." The most

frustrating times occurred with recruitment and when volunteers did not show up. At the end of the year, a "low" point occurred:

> . . .maybe there is this whole idea that if you go into community service you can change the world right away. We know that doesn't happen, but I realized that. . .things just have to happen one step at a time. Only by keeping at it are you really going to make progress.

Several students spoke about gaining confidence and becoming "more in touch with the broader social issues," gaining "more information than I would have in ordinary life," and understanding power. Several students commented on how they appreciated working with another coordinator, and one coordinator who worked alone felt it was "too much for one person."

Leadership

People could change the lives of others, according to a coordinator. She felt "things just have to happen one step at a time" because a service project's impact on a young child's life may come "ten years down the road." A student likened a mentoring relationship to planting a seed, with hope that future influences would cultivate the seed. The delay in seeing results caused frustration, but served as a good reality check.

A disadvantage of project coordination existed, in one student's opinion, because of pitfalls of "apathy and actual lack of effort by people." Several participants mentioned facing problems when project volunteers didn't show up or the pain when "you feel like your tires are spinning."

Student leaders defined their relationships with others. One student described authority as "monitoring of others' actions" that was "not very fun." To her, leadership meant helping others do what they wanted to do "the best way they can." She needed authority to accomplish "bureaucratic things," such as tracking hours. Other students realized boundaries existed, but were

not "set in stone." People could impact others "as long as there is a relationship." A coordinator described a key project event that was slow and: "I ended up just getting on a table and getting things going. . .I had to really step in and take control and it was the first time I had ever really done that." This symbolized risk-taking for her. Coordinators felt they learned how to help people do their best.

Coordinators began to accept ambiguity, which one student described as something which just "had to be there." Coordinators thought ambiguity offered them opportunities to grow and without it a person functioned as a manager. One focus group discussed differences between leadership and management. They felt volunteers considered them managers who gave information about the next event and did not feel they established a vision for the project. Volunteers moved their mentee relationships in the direction they wanted. Another coordinator believed that leadership occurred, because a manager just "tells people what to do in a very black and white manner." Coordinators listened to volunteers. "I think you guys underestimate what we have done," a student concluded, because the coordinators developed opportunities for forty mentor/mentee relationships.

Team leadership provided support for coordinators because others would "carry the ball when you need a little time" to deal with stress and feeling at "wits end." Most students agreed everyone had his or her own way of leading, but team members needed a common goal. They recognized that each person formed his or her "own type of leadership by looking at how others do it."

Skills and Knowledge

Communication skills. Students became aware of existing skills in response to new situations. Each focus group identified improved communication, primarily listening skills, observation, empathy, and

perspective. Several students said they learned not to fear speaking in front of large groups. One coordinator talked about dealing with complaints. Leaders felt they had to interact on a "different level" with friends who volunteered and expected special concessions.

Organizational skills. Coordinators realized they had to be organized to run programs, remedy situations, and find ways to be successful. Major frustrations revolved around recruiting and keeping volunteers, in part because they dealt with bureaucracies and legal ramifications within organizations or public schools. Students talked about needing to become better organized, in order to deal with stress. One coordinator felt pulled in six different directions by multiple administrative roles, which included dealing with volunteers, families, and agencies.

One coordinator kept personal feelings to herself when problems arose within the community agency. She avoided bringing internal agency politics into volunteer reflection sessions and thought she maintained a sense of professionalism.

Time management. Time management remained a constant struggle, causing conflicts for many students. They felt responsibilities to do things that "just had to be done," so they set schedules and tried to limit frustrations. Confidence grew as they developed skills and learned about themselves. The development of spontaneity helped several students cope, while others talked about putting things in order and not wasting time. One student integrated what he learned into "all areas of my life."

Perceptions of Others

A woman acknowledged her lack of exposure to diversity before becoming a coordinator. She found it exciting to be thrown into new situations.

Another began to notice when diversity existed in groups and when it didn't, which "opened my mind a bit."

USD volunteers. A coordinator misjudged the commitment of one volunteer who turned out to be "one of our best." This experience helped her reevaluate how she stereotyped people. Other coordinators described volunteers in their projects as either people who really cared or not, and the ones who were "into it from the beginning" cared the entire time. All participants agreed many students really cared and showed concern about more than just themselves.

Agency administrators. A negative perception of public schools developed for a coordinator who saw "kids that I felt should really be in the program, but they were considered to be. . .beyond help." He previously perceived the education system as offering everyone a fair chance, but now thought this was not the case.

Recipients of service. Several coordinators stressed the importance of taking time to know persons receiving service because they could learn from them. The American Indian cultural tradition of stopping all activity when a death or anniversary of a death occurred meant a community service project at the reservation might be canceled with very short notice. Coordinators had to adjust to this uncertainty and help volunteers understand and respect the strong community ties on the reservation. Another coordinator discovered she stereotyped senior citizens, with thoughts like ". . .get off the road, you're an awful driver." Positive and negative perceptions developed after seeing both the vibrancy and crankiness of individual seniors. Stereotypical responses became obvious to a coordinator who realized she treated all young children as she treated her sisters. As a coordinator, she needed to develop friendships rather than be a "person in charge."

The relationships which developed between student literacy tutors and USD physical plant and dining service employees caused dramatic perception changes for coordinators and volunteers. Students got to know the people who clean and garden at USD by tutoring them in a classroom. They grew to understand the employees did not speak due to their limited English, not unfriendliness, and students began to stop between classes and talk with them. Good relationships developed. The employees gave them "big hugs as we leave each class and. . .are really interested in our lives and get concerned about our finals and making sure we are studying enough."

The issue of who belongs to a majority or a minority group struck one coordinator. A White woman felt like an outsider when she found herself on a predominantly Asian and Latino neighborhood playground. She recalled how one of the kids said he didn't want to be there because "I'm the minority, there is no one else like me here." She replied "Hey, look at me, I'm a minority. . .I know how you feel." She learned from "looking at situations from different perspectives and realizing that I may be comfortable, but somebody else won't be."

Another example of stereotyping began with a coordinator's mentoring experience the previous year. His mentee got into trouble the first few times they met. After writing him off, the mentor discovered all he needed was someone to "grab his hand and say 'Look, I'm here for you'." The student's grades improved dramatically and the mentor, who became close to the family, summarized his experience as an important aspect of his learning:

> . . .he was a Hispanic male and here comes this Caucasian boy from the all American family and it took a little time to weed through all the preconceived notions we have that society dictates. . . .it doesn't matter

what a person looks like or how you might perceive them in one day, it's getting to know them, not how they act, but why they act.

One group discussed cultural groups' labels. A student shied away from words like "Hispanic, Black, Negro, African American, because you really don't know what people want to be called." They talked during a seminar about how powerfully words can offend and debilitate. The group agreed it seemed sad that individuals who had their "hearts in the right place could still really offend someone." One coordinator became more aware of people who labeled the homeless or the poor in casual conversations. She explained, "they are human beings and are just the same as we are." A man did not share the "culture shock" some other coordinators described because it felt natural for him to accept people for who they are.

Influence on Others

USD coordinators and volunteers. A number of coordinators said they influenced one another by sharing information and ideas, but most focus group participants felt they had minimal influence on volunteers. Coordinators of one-time projects saw volunteers for only one day. Often volunteers signed up for a project then failed to come. Lack of student interest in service frustrated coordinators who wondered how to convince them volunteering could be a positive, beneficial experience.

Several coordinators felt they influenced their peers to think about issues, even if they chose not to volunteer. Coordinators felt any influence on volunteers happened because they modeled commitment and caring. Some volunteers recognized the value of their experiences and thanked coordinators for exposure to other cultures. Volunteers asked questions and talked about their service experiences with coordinators, then often brought a friend if they had a good experience. One coordinator wished he could say coordinators

empowered volunteers, but he felt that seemed idealistic. Coordinators did influence volunteers by providing a structure for them.

Recipients of service. Coordinators felt they influenced recipients of service, especially neighborhood youth, much more than volunteers or other USD students. Neighborhood children who started "on the outskirts" of a recreation project became more open after they realized students wanted to help them. A coordinator and other volunteers encouraged junior high students to understand the needs of a special education student and accept him during the activities. Listening to the children appeared to be a major factor in gaining their trust.

Coordinators related stories about non-English speaking students who "started the upward trend in getting their grades together and learning study skills." One shy learner seemed "scared" when he had to read English. His mentor reminded him he already learned Spanish in addition to his indigenous dialect, so he could do it again! They agreed the real impact would not be known until the learners were older because a "sleeper effect" might occur. A coordinator thought mentors exposed junior high students to values that could set them on "a path for life" and they could "really make something of themselves." It started here, he added, "We are like unsung heroes."

Agency and school staff. Students discussed whether USD projects influenced agency or school staff members. The San Diego Housing Commission had awarded their "Shelter Award for Innovative Programming" to the USD Literacy Project several years before this study began, and a staff member told this year's coordinator the Commission hoped to replicate the college student volunteer project in other housing developments.

One coordinator thought the public elementary school could not be influenced because the institution "is basically a huge bureaucracy. . .a

dinosaur." USD may have influenced other schools indirectly, because a Bay area school heard about the USD project and hoped to duplicate it. While institutional change seemed unlikely, one school administrator changed his opinion about the "big white buildings" (USD) he saw from his campus because he learned college students "care about what goes on outside of USD." One project received more support when the agency staff started "looking at things differently. . .they stop and talk. . .and ask me if I need anything." An Urban Plunge project coordinator decided agencies who received volunteers "must see it as something valuable [because] they welcome us back."

Other influence. One student thought her community service leadership influenced her father to expand service opportunities in the high school where he was assistant principal and Mexican university students seemed impressed by USD students' volunteer involvement through a binational community service project.

Decision-making

Students in four of the five focus groups shared interest in volunteering after college with the Peace Corps, Jesuit Volunteer Corps, or other organizations. Others talked about service becoming the focus of their lives, as college students and throughout their lifetimes. They spoke about moving beyond the "band-aid effect" of meeting immediate human needs, toward working for social change. Attendance at the COOL Conference helped students begin understanding issues of advocacy and the need to incorporate new meanings and direction into USD programs.

Reading habits changed for some students who chose books and newspaper articles related to social problems more frequently than before they became coordinators. Kozol's (1988) book, *Rachel and her Children*, helped several Literacy Corps coordinators relate more closely to issues faced by

families in housing developments. Another student realized newspaper stories about people in need caught his interest because it "brings the world in." A participant said:

> . . .before I got involved, if I read about something in the neighborhood, I would say that's too bad and turn the page. But now, I'll read it and I think something can be done about this. . . .I go through the steps in my mind about what can be done to change the situation.

Thoughts about future careers shifted for these coordinators. One woman began to look into nonprofit organization careers "as a result of my volunteer work." The community service role made a student feel more comfortable in a responsible leadership role because running the project built confidence. Another coordinator believed any career path needed to focus on "social benefit rather than an individual benefit." This opinion was mirrored by a man who reflected back to his thinking before college as:

> . . .I will get the tools I need, the credentials to really make some money and establish myself in society. . . .But looking from a community service perspective, it kind of gets your priorities aligned a little bit differently. It's not so much me as it is us, it's not so much what I want, but also what's best for others.

Several students attended a Servant Leadership seminar and decided to work for a company with goals dedicated to others. Future decisions needed to include commitment to others, as one student commented: "I want to do my part and I think if everyone did their part, we could solve a lot of the evils of this world."

Support for Community Service Leaders

USD coordinators received support from staff advisors, seminar instructors, and graduate students. Coordinators said colleagues gave them

meaningful support because significant trust developed among them during the fall orientation retreat. Coordinators took interest in each other's programs, understood day-to-day concerns, and faced the same problems. One described heart-to-heart talks with other coordinators as "rejuvenating." Peer support seemed strongest among coordinators whose volunteers made weekly commitments.

Staff advisors received positive comments in all but one project. The advisors, professional staff, and graduate student had limited credibility if they did not come to project sites or participate in programs. A student expected her advisor to "show me that you have a handle on what is going on" because if she had to explain the project it became easier to talk to someone who already understood. A coordinator said her advisor "showed me the way and let me free, because she knew I could handle it." Advisors offered support when problems with the project and personal issues arose, as when an advisor helped a coordinator "survive" an awkward semester. One coordinator saw an advisor as imposing, wanting "everything to come out O.K." and not hearing the student's ideas.

The literacy seminar instructor did not support coordinators except by giving information, because they saw the instructors only during seminar sessions. A workplace literacy seminar consultant proved to be most helpful to project coordinators because she understood employee needs and approaches to English as a Second Language. According to one coordinator, the literacy graduate student "understood the meaning of literacy. . .and dealing with tutors because she was more our age, so she could understand time commitments."

Volunteers provided a source of support for coordinators, especially during van rides and reflection groups. Coordinators did not see AS student

directors as helpful because they did not know much about the projects. Students credited the USD mission statement, wonderful facilities, budget, and access to vans for supporting project successes.

Interaction with other student community service leaders at the COOL Conference made a tremendous impact on the students who attended. USD delegates to this national conference brought back enthusiasm and new ideas for the future of the AS Community Service Committee.

Research Process

The students felt participation in the research process was easy to schedule and not overwhelming in terms of time commitment. Questionnaires received critiques, from "interesting" to "difficult to understand," and "limiting." While journals seemed helpful, most students found it difficult to write consistently. One student described journal writing as "cathartic." Another quipped, "it's nice to see research that is qualitative. . .I deal with quantitative everything."

Most focus group participants preferred interviews over any other research component. Coordinators found informal conversations valuable, so some things had already been discussed in "heart-to-heart" meetings. While some reflections made during the interview "felt like an old journal entry," a participant stated:

> I find that I need to write or say something before I really understand myself. . .my thoughts are fleeting and I never really catch them and therefore I can't understand them. Once I. . .put them on paper, then they become reality. . .Otherwise I might be fishing for answers.

One focus group wished interviews had occurred throughout the year because the experience proved to be so powerful. One student believed the entire experience helped leaders test their values and become more critical.

SANTA CLARA UNIVERSITY: YEAR TWO

Description of the 1993-1994 Program

The basic structure of the Santa Clara Community Action Program (SCCAP) remained the same as it existed in the 1992-93 study. Directors from the previous year collaborated with professional staff to select the new director, who helped choose the assistant directors. Then the new student leader team interviewed and selected the students who applied for coordinator positions.

The director spent the summer of 1994 at SCU preparing to assume her responsibilities for the program. The three assistant directors returned to campus two weeks early for training. They trained the coordinators a week before freshman orientation, when SCCAP members helped freshmen move into the dorms. Directors developed plans for the year, expanding the educational component of community service and planning reflection for all of the directors and coordinators. As part of SCCAP training, student leaders participated in a multicultural workshop for agency coordinators.

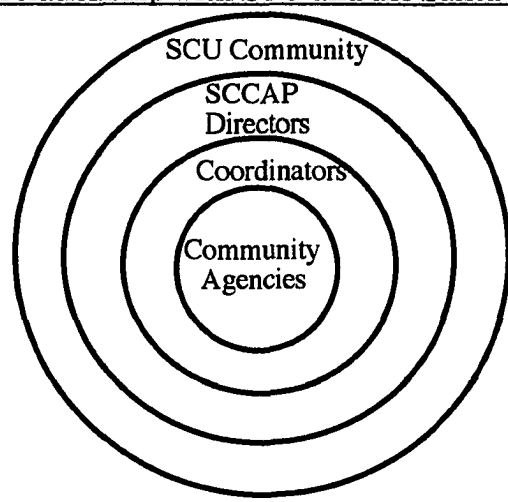
The SCCAP director wrote a position paper describing her vision for the 1993-94 year that built upon the "Community" theme from the SCU President's fall convocation address: the importance of nurturing "a diverse community rooted in understanding and respect" and advancing the common good. The SCCAP director hoped to "include other organizations and a diversity of people, enable the entire University to work together as a community, be a part of growth on all sides--staff, volunteers and community,

spread the SCCAP philosophy, extend our enthusiasm to the entire University community, pool energy with others, and form a community." She stated SCCAP had "responsibility to create a supportive atmosphere in which all students can have a powerful voice in addressing social injustices" by raising awareness through successful communication. She concluded by saying she did not have to create a network "to bridge gaps that help perpetuate social injustices" because one already existed. She wished only to strengthen it.

During spring semester, several directors discussed the differences in SCCAP between the two years of this study. The student leaders developed a chart after discussing SCCAP's relationship with the SCU and Santa Clara community agencies, which they displayed in their office. The chart placed community agencies and coordinators in the center of a circle, then directors, with the SCU community encompassing the circle.

Figure 3.

SCCAP's perceived relationship with SCU and the Santa Clara community.



They thought this year more people came to the SCCAP office to "hang out," in part because the director had a good relationship with the student director of the SCU Multicultural Center. The directors described trying to empower the coordinators through having less rigidity, but found that to be

"messy" and coordinators seemed uncomfortable with shared leadership. More camaraderie existed, in contrast to cliques during the preceding year. They felt closer linkages developed with University staff including those working in the bookstore, dining services, and public safety.

The 1993-94 SCCAP students developed several projects within agencies that coordinators ran independently from existing agency volunteer programs, including teen mentoring in Juvenile Hall. Prevention programs also began to address long term "solutions" to substance abuse and women's issues.

A different Student Development staff member advised the SCCAP director during the second year. Both advisors agreed that during the 1992-93 year SCCAP went through a restructuring process: therefore, the 1993-94 year functioned more smoothly. One advisor perceived the nature of SCU students changing during recent years because they brought a sense of idealism. She also observed that the 1993-94 SCCAP directors and coordinators reflected more diversity.

Findings of the Study

Survey Summary

Demographics

Fourteen students agreed to participate in this study. Twelve of the 14 participants coordinated ongoing projects and the other two coordinated projects in which several large events occurred during the year. Three SCCAP directors had participated in the first-year study and thereby were ineligible. The third assistant director, my son, did not participate in the study. The 12 women and two men in this second year SCU case study included eight seniors, four juniors, and two sophomores. Eight participants identified themselves as White, three as Latino, and three as Asian.

Volunteer Histories

All but one of the students volunteered before they came to SCU. Six began volunteering during grade school, one when she was "very young" and the rest between the ages of 11 to 13 when they volunteered in rest homes, churches, and hospitals. Seven students began community service during high school, tutoring younger students, participating in programs for persons who were developmentally delayed, or volunteering through a service organization. One college student started his community service during his junior year and became a SCCAP coordinator as a senior.

Only four students said their parents influenced them to volunteer; one reported that her parents gave their children 100% encouragement "to give our time." Another student felt her parents "probably" encouraged her and one wrote that her parents instilled values of caring, although they did not volunteer. Two students said their parents did not volunteer or influence their community service involvement; six either said "no" to the question about parental influence or chose not to respond to the question.

Almost all participants started their SCU volunteering during their freshman year in SCCAP projects and other service programs, including Habitat for Humanity, Amnesty International, or the course-based East Side Project. Students became volunteers to meet people, provide diversion from their academic demands, and "make a difference" in the community. Several wrote that their faith motivated them. One student saw community service as a way to be with friends and as a rewarding experience. Others identified learning from the community as a dominant reason for volunteering. A woman realized she grew up in a sheltered environment and had everything she wanted, so service provided a broader world experience. Three other students linked community service with their college learning process, while one man

credited Santa Clara's Jesuit educational mission with encouraging "a strong emphasis on education through service."

Reasons for assuming leadership positions included wanting to provide meaningful opportunities for other students and putting already existing leadership abilities into action. Leaders believed community service experience would bring the "joy of volunteering to others" and provide opportunities for personal growth or see changes occur for the volunteers and the community. Others brought confidence and leadership skills to community service. One student planned "to be a leader, not a follower." Individuals wanted to focus on an issue, remain involved in one program, or accept a more challenging role providing service opportunities for others.

Questionnaires

Students completed two questionnaires, twice each at the beginning and at the end of the academic year. Rest (1979) developed the Defining Issues Test (DIT), which evolved from Kohlbergs' moral judgment theories. Comparable student means, from Pascarella and Terenzini's (1991) secondary analysis of research using the DIT, were P=40.16 for private universities and P=50.49 for church affiliated liberal arts colleges. SCU scores for the Pre DIT, 50.11, and the Post DIT, 50.84, surpassed the private universities by ten points; the Pre DIT score placed slightly under, and the Post DIT, slightly over the mean for church affiliated liberal arts colleges.

The Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory contained four categories: Emotional Resilience (ER), Flexibility/Openness (FO), Perceptual Acuity (PAC), and Personal Autonomy (PA). All pre-test and post-test scores surpassed student mean scores established in the original research, and all post-test scores increased over the pre-test scores.

Table 5.

SCU Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory scores: 1993-1994.

Category	Initial research Student mean	SCU/2 Pre-test	SCU/2 Post-test	Change
ER	79.20	81.50	85.86	+4.36
FO	65.35	70.64	74.64	+4.00
PAC	46.86	48.36	49.14	+0.78
PA	32.91	35.50	37.14	+1.64

Journals

Nine of the 14 student participants in the second year SCU study submitted journals after their first quarter of community service. One student felt added "pressure to do a better job with my teaching and leadership." Most students referred to the added knowledge they gained through community service. They felt tested to "work harder and really think about social justice issues."

Over half of the journals revealed passages about personal growth. One participant wrote she "experienced a tremendous amount of self growth in how I choose to live my life, how I view the world, community, and people." Other entries referred to "testing of myself" or learning "how human I am."

Skills and Knowledge

One student credited other SCCAP staff members and people in the community for challenging her to stand up for herself, use tact, handle conflict, compromise, and have a more open mind. She felt she "had to learn how to do these things in order to interact with the diverse staff." Two other students mentioned that people in the community and the SCCAP staff from diverse cultures helped them develop interpersonal skills.

Several coordinators recalled their struggle to balance general SCCAP responsibilities, like doing paperwork and attending meetings, with project management, such as coordinating volunteer schedules and arranging for agency placements. Leaders balanced their multiple responsibilities by asking others to help. The need for balance also arose, in working with large groups and being responsive to individuals. Learning how to interact with so many people gave one student a "stronger voice at SCU," according to her journal entry.

Students learned about issues from agency liaisons and shared this information with project volunteers. One student said he pushed himself to really think about social justice issues. Another coordinator said "I may not remember everything I learned in my classes. . .but my personal experience with community service will be in my memories always." A student discovered very different lifestyles and mindsets "are actually shared by a larger majority throughout the country and the world."

Perceptions of Others

The students realized their perceptions changed through interactions with diverse groups of people. One woman described herself as having grown up in a "predominately white and conservative area. . .while my parents taught me to respect other people, it wasn't until I came to Santa Clara that I was able to break down stereotypes I had about other people of different races and backgrounds."

Recipients of service. A student recalled how uncomfortable she had been before speaking to homeless people, admitting her lack of enthusiasm about the interaction. She wondered what she might have in common with those who were homeless and realized:

> . . .a certain fact that we as a society tend to forget. Before a person is homeless, he or she is a human being. The only thing that separates me and a homeless person is the fact that I live in a home, eat three meals a day, and they don't. . .another big difference is that. . .I have had a bigger advantage than they have of surviving in this world. I grew up going to nice schools and living in a nice home. I always knew I was going to go to college and eventually have a good job. And I always knew there would be money for me if I ever needed it. . .

The complex causes of homelessness became evident when she met at least three engineers who lost their jobs and became homeless, including a Santa Clara graduate. Several students saw the interconnectedness of societal problems, starting with how individuals think and act. One called for "a cultural and spiritual revolution."

Agencies. Students expressed discomfort with agencies' response to social problems. After a student tried to start a food salvaging project, she saw agencies serving the homeless as part of the problem that kept homeless persons from becoming self-sufficient. She thought homelessness could only end by meeting each individual's needs as human beings, healing their problems, and allowing community members to work together toward that end. She saw potential problems, based on whether people would make such a commitment and whether some homeless people would willingly enter mainstream society. It seemed to her that society did not want to even acknowledge a problem unless people felt directly affected. Another student became frustrated because as she changed and grew, she saw little change in others. Her actions made "insignificant" impact on the "greater picture" but she still wished that others could learn what she had learned. It particularly bothered her to see "narrow minded liberals and conservatives" refuse to meet

on a middle ground. She heard people attacking each other's views, not listening, compromising, or "agreeing to disagree."

Coordinators. Perceptions about the other SCCAP coordinators shifted for one student when she realized "75% have another job, carry 15 units, belong to other clubs and we manage to have some fun." She wondered whether other SCU students might be less active since it seemed SCCAP staff members filled the majority of leadership positions on campus. She also noticed past SCCAP coordinators completely quit all leadership by their senior year, perhaps because they ran themselves down by trying to balance too much. Another coordinator felt the business of planning her events provided fewer rewards than she experienced when interacting directly with those served. Her programming issues seemed very different from the issues of project coordinators who worked with the same volunteers every week.

Influence on Others

One journal entry questioned whether influence could be judged by whether a coordinator "ended homelessness" or if he did groundwork for "future SCCAPers." A journal entry described being a voice in the community to provide avenues for teaching others about social issues and encouraging them to take action. Another coordinator said he felt good about benefiting others.

One participant could not see a SCCAP project providing fast results for young girls living in low income housing, but hoped they would develop self confidence through project activities and "strive to be the best that they can be." She remembered a sociology professor discussing the "difficulties children in housing projects face when they set high goals." Concerns surfaced about encouraging the children unrealistically, but the coordinator felt it "would be a sin to not do anything to help." A literacy project coordinator expressed confidence that he and the learners influenced each other. The coordinator

empathized with the learners because he still struggled with English after living in this country for 14 years, and the learners' sacrifices helped him "reflect on the things I have taken for granted."

Decision-making

Throughout the journals, students identified increased awareness of social issues. One woman refused to ignore others making "inappropriate comments" about an individual or a group of people and realized saying something might stop future comments. One senior reflected on her future decisions about where to live and what type of work she would do while balancing family needs. She decided college schedules made it easy to become involved in community service. She became frustrated because she wanted to do even more, but "time, money, and people constraints" made "big ideas" go untouched.

Interviews

A pattern appeared during the second year SCU interviews when I asked for their initial thoughts about the impact community service leadership had on student directors and coordinators. First came an outpouring of descriptors reflecting the frustrations, stresses, and challenges the coordinators felt. They talked about volunteers "not pulling through" or not having as much invested in the projects as coordinators expected. After the stream of negative summative statements, participants focused on how much their perspectives shifted from negative to positive as they learned about themselves, other people, and issues.

Several coordinators compared how they felt when they volunteered to how they felt while being responsible for the entire project. One woman missed feeling close to the people she served and therefore, to the real purpose of the project. She realized without the time spent on the phone and the

organizational tasks the project would not happen, but she missed the "hands on" experience. Another coordinator wondered how much volunteers needed her as a resource because volunteers "make it [their experience] what they're going to make it."

Leadership

Students said their community service experience changed their understanding of leadership. "I used to correlate leader with expert," one student stated, "and I am definitely not an expert." It became easier to say "I don't know" as she encouraged volunteers to take initiative for themselves and rely less on her. Another student generally thought of a leader as a "boss," but within the context of community service a leader became a resource or builder of "a road" between campus and community worlds. Another definition shifted from telling people what to do toward working with people "in order to get things accomplished." "I'm someone who likes to take on everything myself" explained a coordinator who realized leadership meant having other people help, by "not just delegating but working with other people." That new approach involved developing "trust in other people."

Several students talked about past definitions based on styles of leadership, then decided that just using a certain style did not work. One student had observed many different styles of leading, from very organized to not organized, of being totally personable, or being creative all the time. She concluded a person does not "have to be a set way" to be a leader. Two kinds of leaders fit one student's definition: those who "always accomplish the goal" and others whom everyone likes because they "meet the groups' needs." In another definition, a coordinator concluded "everybody's leadership style is different."

Other students defined leadership without noting an actual change in their definition. Leaders initiate supportive relationships, according to one person who believed leaders also receive support from others. A student decided to be more clear about guidelines and to become assertive within her program because she needed reliable people. Other projects could accommodate less committed volunteers, and those project coordinators believed some volunteers needed "to come whenever they want" to a one time project. Still others saw leadership as organizing or facilitating motivated volunteers. Qualities of leaders emerged in other definitions, including the ability to build confidence, have passion about what they do, show responsibility, and demonstrate flexibility. Leaders' actions should be congruent with what they asked of others, according to one man who committed to practicing what he preached. He felt he gained people's respect by doing what he asked them to do.

In a number of the focus group interviews, leaders discussed the importance of their own learning and of educating others. Several students said they needed to facilitate learning for the volunteers, adding that volunteers needed "to learn from their own perspective and at their own pace." At the same time, leaders had be to learners because no one knew what their whole project entailed. Past SCCAP leaders helped coordinators realize they did not "have all the answers." Coordinators reported that past SCCAP leaders modeled leadership by "guiding us along and pushing us to follow our own ideas and develop our own thoughts." Another student felt it important to avoid forcing "other people to see what you see" and to validate others' rights to their own opinion. Future SCCAP directors, already chosen for 1994-95, talked about their goals of increasing educational programs for coordinators and the

entire campus because they experienced the importance of education within their own projects.

Coordinators learned several "hard" lessons when they could not meet all the goals they set for themselves and found it impossible to "always be on top of things." Because many coordinators began as volunteers in their projects, they brought biased perceptions of the volunteer role. They felt leaders' attitudes could encourage volunteers to share the goals of a project.

The need for teamwork seemed very similar for a student who coordinated a community service project and played on a sports team. He believed both volunteers and sports team members needed empowerment and focus. Leaders dealt with the same frustrations as volunteers or members of a team, but they brought experience, motivation, and knowledge that made the "organization flow."

Skills and Knowledge

Students identified growth in self-confidence as the most valued manifestation of their skills. "I've learned lots about myself, trusting what I do" stated one student while another said "I am very confident and assured about what I am doing." Others stated, "I learned about my strengths and my weaknesses," "I've learned self confidence and being able to see myself as someone who can make a decision. . .handle a problem, come up with an idea . . deal with disappointment," and "I'm. . .feeling more comfortable with my own stance and my own faith." Two additional students talked about learning to trust themselves, which allowed them to trust others. A sense of self-reliance helped a student realize she influenced volunteers and her project.

The students identified communication, teaching, and organizational skills they acquired. One woman said that she became more assertive; another overcame her fear of calling people whom she did not know, including

volunteers and agency or school liaisons. Speaking in front of a group posed a great challenge for a student who felt she "did start" to gain confidence. One coordinator needed to clarify what other people meant to avoid assuming she understood. As volunteers began to take more initiative, the coordinator learned to do less talking.

Effective communication meant adapting to different attitudes, age levels, and views on social issues which volunteers brought to a coordinator's AIDS project. She said "some people have friends who have died of AIDS," while others knew very little and just wanted to learn about the illness. Communication among the SCCAP staff proved to be challenging and educational. A student realized that she:

> . . .so concentrated on seeing the good that I wouldn't see the bad. . .I was just seeing the glossed over versions of what I saw from a distance. . . . And interacting with people directly. . .(and by) being uncomfortable for a while helped me get to know people or to feel comfortable being myself around people who are different.

A student talked about how "kids are learning. . .more about drugs" than she knew, so the SCCAP drug education program competed with what kids heard from friends and older brother or sisters. She said "if they already have all this knowledge" it's important for us to be there to help them "learn the right thing." Volunteers dealt with sex education and questioned how much information about homosexuality to share. The coordinator recognized the different attitudes about what should be taught and the complexity of the issues, causing her to "think and think and think" about how other people feel and about her own stance.

Students identified very specific organizational skills: the ability to develop staff, organize events, encourage action beyond volunteer work, such

as writing a letter to congress or donating money for a hunger project. SCCAP involvement provided opportunities to learn about and experience teamwork. Intangible things, like learning patience and keeping an open mind, helped students become better organized. "Other people around you. . .are skillful in solving the problem," said a student who realized the value of asking others for help. Education became reciprocal among coordinators, volunteers, agency or school liaisons, and those who received service.

Knowledge about the community helped students identify "what can actually be done" so problems seemed less distant. One student thought her knowledge had increased or broadened. Discussions with other SCCAP coordinators made her realize she "wasn't as aware of the issues" as she thought. Being part of SCCAP brought "different kinds of concerns" into focus and helped her understand how many circumstances affect a particular problem. For example, she began to think beyond recycling and considered the products she purchased.

Individual comments about being a coordinator included: it "made me more aware," gave me "the chance to step back and see what I'm doing and how my little part of SCCAP fits into a whole," helped shed "light on other issues, and offered "more of an introduction of what's out there in the real world." The importance of learning and educating others permeated the interview. Participants discussed their positive learning. At first, a student felt every problem within her project seemed to be her fault. Then she decided things were not necessarily wrong, but not "totally accomplished."

Perceptions of Others

Recipients of service. Ongoing contact with recipients of service prompted the most changes in participants' perceptions. Since several projects addressed needs of the homeless, a number of students grappled with their

feelings about this population. One coordinator talked about going through "ups and downs with my perceptions." She started the year feeling very open minded, then became discouraged and confused about what homeless people were really like. She talked to the SCCAP social change group about her dilemma and watched a film they recommended. The same evening she went out for a "quick bite to eat and there was a homeless man. . .we had dinner together." She found his story amazing, and concluded that this conversation helped her stop trying to box people up, to see each homeless person as a human being. Another student described herself as "open minded. . .in an inexperienced way" through interactions at a cold weather shelter. Her initial contact with the homeless provided a view of hard working, polite people in a friendly atmosphere that contrasted dramatically with another experience where she met mentally ill and drug addicted homeless persons. So she saw homeless persons who had bad luck and others who fit the stereotype of irresponsibility. She decided "I think it's a balance of trying (to not look) at either stereotype" and to evaluate each person on his or her own.

The coordinators credited their leadership positions for making them think about discrimination issues. A Special Olympics coordinator began as a volunteer who gave one day to help persons with physical or mental handicaps. As coordinator, she developed business relationships with county offices and athletes and began to see a bigger picture of special athletes who held jobs, contributed to society, and shared insights so "I could even learn from them." Another population helped a project coordinator change his perceptions. He had never volunteered with the elderly and had to overcome his uncomfortable feelings at the same time he helped train new volunteers.

A coordinator who only had attended Catholic schools always thought "it's the teacher's fault" that kids scored low in public schools. Her parents

always emphasized the importance of education so she had not expected parents to be a problem. She found the kids enjoyed learning, but they needed increased motivation and a more positive attitude. Yet their parents cared less whether their kids "even go to school." The children talked about a parent in jail or a family split up as "another fact of life." One coordinator had not realized what children experienced and another admittedly placed her own values about education on pregnant teens served by her project. "I looked at a baby as something that would inhibit" education, but some of the girls shared her own goals about education despite their very different socioeconomic backgrounds. The SCCAP leader gained a "better understanding of people" after realizing she projected her values onto others.

One student identified her stress as self imposed because she tried to do "everything in the world" she thought volunteers wanted her to do. She felt completely overloaded until she began to select what she could do, realizing "I don't think you can do one hundred different things all at once."

A student changed her perspective on volunteerism when she told a story about how:

> . . .the last couple of years my mom called the Salvation Army to see if we could help serve food on Christmas Eve. . .they had too many volunteers already as it was and they always said sorry, try again next year. . .so I had this idea that there's always this excess of volunteers and then this year I really realized that's not the case. That's just for those big special events that people really want to lend their heart and time out to someone who needs it but I realized that it's a big challenge to get committed volunteers to work. . .throughout the year rather than just those times. I think that will help me in the future to try to encourage other people. . .to help out at other times of the year.

Other students perceived their community service leadership experience as "a personal witness" to making a difference. Comments about the future surfaced, "how I as a professional can effect my society" and how "I want to make it [service] a priority after college."

Volunteers. Perceptions about project volunteers changed, both positively and negatively. Only one coordinator described his volunteers as "great." Another student acknowledged every volunteer "approaches situations differently" and some may never comfortably interact with her projects' populations. Four other coordinators developed negative perceptions about their volunteers, including the statements "I expected more of them" and "hardly any of my volunteers showed up at anything that was planned." A coordinator wondered whether she did something wrong or if the volunteers just lacked dedication. Another coordinator thought some volunteers "are more willing to do programs that are quick and easy--soup kitchens and things like that" which are flexible and they do not commit to programs lasting six months.

Stresses occurred due to "so many roadblocks" or because volunteers lacked commitment but had to meet a community service-learning requirement for a class. One coordinator needed volunteers who gave more than their time. He felt they should "be able to see the whole issue" at stake, to see "what you can do and why you're doing it." While he said he would rather have two students who wanted to help the program than "just 10 bodies" he needed to place one tutor for each learner in his literacy project. Frustration arose because of volunteers' relative lack of understanding. One woman tried to share what she had learned about the big picture of volunteering and admitted she just "didn't know how."

Other SCU students. Coordinators also formed strong perceptions about SCU students who were not involved with SCCAP. One participant noticed people wanted to volunteer and said "it's cool" without making the effort. Several coordinators thought SCU students felt guilty because they come from upper or middle class families and either did not realize they were sheltered or wanted to continue being sheltered. "They don't want to know that there are people sleeping on the streets. . .they've had it so lax. . .they just want to continue on their own path."

Another student described SCU students as "apathetic about what was really going on in the world" and "are caught up in success, traditional ideas of what success means." The goals of going to college and getting a good job, they believed, make a person credible. They were not bad people but "far removed from the social problems affecting other Americans." One SCU student asked if "there really were homeless people." Another coordinator said, "They don't want to be responsible;" they stay away because if they accept reality it becomes part of their "responsibility as a person that lives in this society to do something about it." Some SCU students raised money for the homeless "and that's it." She concluded if people don't want to learn about social issues, she must "accept people. . .and just not take it personally." A coordinator admitted she did not expect engineering students to become involved, then decided not to judge a group.

Perceptions about SCCAP changed for two students. One coordinator said frustration arose when "you want to be one cohesive group" and people do not like each other; because "different views make them not get along." Finding common ground could be hard, added the other student.

Influence on Others

"I wouldn't necessarily [use] the word influence, I would say make a difference" began one student who represented a general feeling that coordinators influenced others to a minimal degree. Coordinators thought their volunteers became involved due to self-motivation, so coordinators only provided opportunities for volunteers to keep doing what they wanted to do. Any influence might relate to the amount of time volunteers committed.

Coordinators of three projects cited examples of volunteers who thanked them for "standing up for something," who came to a coordinator when they had a problem, or who shared stories about the people they served. In projects demanding extensive training, a student leader thought the only influence might be in encouraging them to join the project. When volunteers made a one-time commitment, a coordinator said her limited contact precluded much opportunity for influence. None of the coordinators talked about facilitating reflection sessions for their volunteers and one student said "volunteers are not really big on stuff like that."

It bothered a coordinator that some volunteers considered them experts. Coordinators helped educate everyone else at the same time they were learning. A coordinator became aware of equity issues through contact with SCCAP members from diverse backgrounds and from experiences with children in lower socioeconomic status. Frustration arose because so little changed. Two students attended a conference on hunger and homelessness, then realized their soup kitchen project addressed only day-to-day needs, not long term change for the homeless. One of the students decided "educating volunteers on the issue might be the way to get them interested in doing something beyond serving food" and concluded that education at least "introduces people to the concept."

As volunteers in their projects, coordinators felt they influenced those receiving service. Even brief encounters with homeless persons could have an influence because the homeless seldom received respect. A resume writing coordinator told about a homeless man who responded ecstatically, "That's me on that paper, how did you do this?" He appreciated the opportunity to talk about his dreams and the resume was a tangible product. Several coordinators agreed that "cool" college volunteers influenced young children by giving them special attention. Younger children felt more important when someone other than their teacher showed interest in them.

Coordinators thought they influenced SCU students by demonstrating commitment to their projects and through educational programs sponsored by SCCAP. Students approached SCCAP leaders for information about service opportunities and wanted to hear about their volunteer experiences. Whether or not students volunteered, their interest in issues seemed to increase during conversations with the coordinators.

One example of influence involved a coordinator's parents who had not supported their daughter's SCCAP involvement. When they came for senior parent weekend, the daughter took them to her agency project. Her parents met some of the children:

> . . .my Dad was down on his knees with the children, speaking to them, and my Mom was reading a book to some of the children. . .It meant so much to finally hear him and I know it was my Mom, too, saying this is a good thing. 'We like what you're doing'. . .I think they've come to realize how much it really does mean to me and how much I love it and how happy it makes me.

Decision-making

All members of one focus group planned to take time for themselves next year, as one participant said, to "get another grip on my life and to really focus on. . .my goals." Another student got "lost" by trying to keep everybody else happy, and by not taking time for academics, her family, or personal relationships. They talked about friends who had taken "four or five leadership positions," including community service, and overloaded themselves to the extent they took away leadership opportunities for others. These students saw friends who threw themselves into leadership positions for the first three years of college, then did nothing their senior year. One concluded, "it was like a phenomenon." A student made the decision to avoid leadership in her senior year because "my life isn't really mine." Although this group talked about being "worn out," they had learned from their challenges and had fun as community service leaders.

Several other students chose not to apply for a SCCAP position during the next year. One planned to study abroad because it would be "like a breather," then return to look for an internship that would be "completely different from what I've done here" and would be a "fresh and new" experience. Those students who continued as SCCAP leaders expressed concern about maintaining balance during their busy senior year. A man struggled with either staying on a collegiate sports team or continuing with SCCAP, then decided to do both because he felt so connected to the community service program. Others expressed concerns about managing their heavy course load or applying to graduate schools while continuing as a SCCAP leader. They planned to be very organized and "to have a life."

Some leaders linked their community service to future career decisions. A woman felt torn because her family wanted her to apply to law school, but

she wanted to teach, possibly in special education. Her SCCAP experience inspired her to take a year off before deciding. Others decided SCCAP influenced their desire to do public service. One student felt prepared to speak out on issues and respond to people "who spoke out of ignorance."

Several students questioned how much time they would devote to community service in the future. One wanted it to be part of her life and definitely did not want to "have my kids say Mom used to be involved when she was in college." Two students shifted their service involvement goals from international to domestic issues. They wanted to make a difference in their own community by addressing root causes of social problems.

"I'm just worried about being successful" began a woman who talked about becoming a lawyer and continuing her upper-middle class lifestyle. Exposure to poverty and the lack of low-cost housing made her think about "the inequitable distribution of funds" and in our society "having such a lifestyle will prohibit other people from achieving a certain level of comfort in their own lives, makes it harder to be comfortable wanting those things."

Another woman talked about her forthcoming marriage and her new job with a computer company that encouraged corporate community service. The company commitment did not play a part in her employment decision, but she noted future employers asked about her community service leadership during interviews. She thought they saw her having drive to take action, which influenced her being offered jobs. She previously thought of joining the Peace Corps, but knew she could not marry, have a family, and serve abroad because "I can only do what I can do." "What is citizenship?" she asked as she questioned her community role within family life. It seemed unlikely she would be able to work in a homeless shelter every weekend as she had been doing, but other ways existed to connect with the community.

Support for Community Service Leaders

Coordinators commended the SCCAP director and the three Assistant Directors for giving consistent support. They also credited each other for being helpful when someone became frustrated with his or her project. Another coordinator said coming to the SCCAP office and seeing other people take responsibility made SCCAP, as a whole, become a support system.

Meetings provided opportunities for everyone to receive verbal support, network, and share ideas about meeting challenges without being alone. SCCAP's reputation for building community inspired students' involvement, especially the interest coordinators showed in one another's programs. Other support persons included house mates and friends.

Not everyone received the supportive camaraderie they wanted from SCCAP. A few people did not "get along." One student commented on how hard it was when her goals differed from others and when she failed to receive respect. This hindered her ability to work with one person toward a positive goal involving all of SCCAP, but she thought the situation taught her how to work with people she did not particularly like.

Agency personnel offered little support. When a volunteer failed to show up, the agency contact asked the coordinator "to take care of this" without helping to solve the problem. This unsettled the coordinator because "some of the time there was nothing I could do." During the third quarter, he received needed help from a new agency contact. In another project, so much was delegated that the coordinator ended up doing everything. She aired her frustration: "They were supposedly in the business of serving the community" but did not return phone calls or help students accomplish their goals. The coordinator conceded that agency staff members were very busy.

Research Process

Several students regretted they "flaked" on journal writing because they felt the process could have helped them to reflect. A student commented "any time I write something down on paper, it is another way of putting together everything that has happened. . .allows me to organize my thoughts and think about how it's effecting me." Writing the journal "was very comforting" to one coordinator because the process helped her reflect on her experience. The journal revealed what occurred at the beginning of the year, the end, and in between. Structures existed for students to evaluate programs during the year, but not to reflect on their personal thoughts and feelings.

Two students felt the focus group interviews had more value because "more personality comes out when you're talking" and "personal responses. . . give you accurate experience." The focus groups made one student feel better about her insights. Recording the focus group interviews made one student feel uncomfortable at first, but another thought the interview offered "a good way" to organize thoughts.

The questionnaires received minimal comments. Two students felt the Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) related more to other things they had done on campus rather than their community service program, but two students specifically said they liked the CCAI. One stated that responding to the CCAI questions at the beginning and end of the year prompted thought-provoking reflection. A student described the DIT as ambiguous. One coordinator said, "I'm really glad you are doing this study" and thought every study participant agreed the experience was a "good thing."

UNIVERSITY OF SAN DIEGO: YEAR TWO

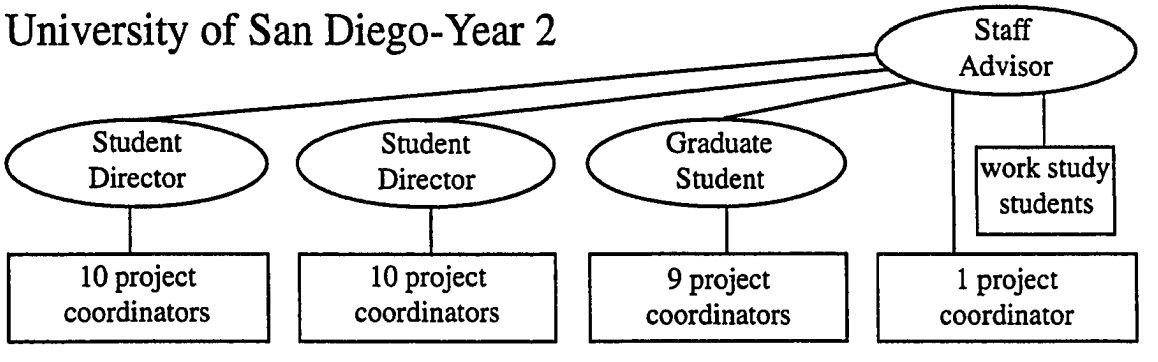
Description of the 1993-1994 Program

During 1993-94, the USD program shifted from staff advising to student director advising for coordinators. The Associated Students (AS) executive committee and a Volunteer Resources staff person appointed two senior women as Community Service Directors, both of whom had served previously as project coordinators.

One student director remained in San Diego during the summer and spent significant time organizing the 1993-94 academic year. The other student director returned several weeks before courses began to plan coordinator orientation and to participate in a week-long training facilitated by their advisor, the Volunteer Resources Assistant Director.

Figure 4.

USD Community Service Committee structure: 1993-94.



Student directors assumed major responsibilities for the weekend orientation retreat. During the retreat, the two student directors and the

graduate student met with coordinators they would advise throughout the year. Student literacy coordinators felt the graduate student did not meet their advising needs, in part because he approached community service with less structure than the coordinators. The literacy coordinators independently planned their recruitment strategies at the retreat. During the weekend, the student directors established effective working relationships with the coordinators they would be advising.

Until this time, the AS Community Service Directors had received a small stipend from the Associated Students, with the expectation that they attend weekly AS program board meetings and hold three to five office hours each week. The University funded the directors as work-study students for 15 hours per week, making their minimum weekly time commitment 20 hours.

Student directors and coordinators could enroll in a one-unit field experience seminar, "Leadership through service-learning." Approximately two-thirds of the students enrolled, but directors could not observe any difference in the quality of coordinators who did or did not receive credit. Directors expected all coordinators to attend their monthly meetings.

No major changes occurred in the projects the second year. Teams of two or more coordinators recruited, trained, and supervised project volunteers. Several projects faced demanding time limits because USD "Partnership in Education" schools changed to single-track, year-round school schedules. This meant the public school intersession began three weeks after the USD fall semester started. USD mentors and tutors needed to be matched with younger students before intersession or wait until the middle of the USD semester. An after-school recreation project could not begin until mid-semester, which made volunteer recruitment difficult for project coordinators.

Freshman interest in volunteering generated by an orientation week service project dissipated with the delay of the project.

Student directors, graduate student, and the USD Associate Director of Volunteer Resources held weekly advisor meetings. Student directors advised their project coordinators several times a week or month, as needed by the project. Literacy project coordinators did not receive consistent support until mid-semester, when the graduate student resigned and another graduate student filled the position.

Second semester began with a one-day reorientation and planning retreat. Literacy coordinators reported they greatly appreciated the new graduate student's support. Student directors felt comfortable in their advisor roles and, by the end of the year, all participants agreed the student advised program had been successful.

Findings of the Study

Survey Summary

The survey generated demographic information and histories of participants' past volunteer experiences. Histories included first volunteer experiences, perceptions of parental influence, first college volunteer experiences, and reasons for deciding to become community service leaders.

Demographics

The 14 participants included 12 women and two men. Eight of these participants coordinated projects where the project volunteers made ongoing commitments. Four coordinators worked with projects occurring one or two times per semester; the two student directors advised coordinators.

Three sophomores participated and the rest were upperclassmen, five juniors and six seniors. Ten students identified their ethnicity as White, two were Asian and two Latino.

Volunteer Histories

Students described reasons they volunteered as: giving time to others, believing something needed to be done, and wanting to do something "good" about community problems. Interest in becoming more active at USD and meeting new people influenced two leaders. Career goals motivated another student. Projects offered through USD appealed to several students and one participant reported his reason for being involved was to "become more humble."

Two-thirds of the students, a total of eight, stated their parents had not volunteered or were not an influence. Three felt their parents' volunteer involvement did influence them and two others said their parents' volunteering had been "a very little" influence. The remaining students did not respond to the question about parental influence.

Eight participants began volunteering while in high school and four started at the ages of 12 or 13. Of the remaining students, one volunteered for the first time in grade school and another as a sophomore in college. Others volunteered first through church, schools, nursing homes, or a Tijuana hospital.

All but two students who accepted a leadership position brought wide-ranging college community service experiences to their new roles. Only the two directors and one coordinator had been community service leaders. Some students gave multiple reasons for applying for community service leadership. Ten respondents said they wanted to help the project continue or to gain valuable skills and experience. Those who first volunteered in projects, and then decided to become coordinators, said they wanted to implement their own ideas and improve the projects. Students hoped to gain ability to facilitate groups, work with others, and deal with ambiguity and several wanted to learn

leadership skills. Only one student stated the previous coordinator asked her to apply for project leadership, while another saw community service leadership as an opportunity to meet people and encourage others to become involved.

Questionnaires

As in the first year of the study, participants completed two questionnaires, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the Cross-Cultural Interest Inventory (CCAI), at the beginning and end of the year. Rest designed the DIT, which evolved from Kohlberg's work, to measure moral judgment. The DIT P-scores of college students, based on Rest's (1979) secondary analysis of research in private universities, was P= 40.16 and for church affiliated liberal arts colleges P=50.49. The scores on the Defining Issues Test for USD students during the 1993-94 study ranked between liberal arts colleges and church affiliated liberal arts scores, with the pre-test 43.55 and the post-test 44.76.

The four categories of the CCAI questionnaire included Emotional Resilience (ER), Flexibility/Openness (FO), Perceptual Acuity (PAC), and Personal Autonomy (PA).

Table 6.

USD Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory scores: 1993-1994.

Category	Initial research Student mean	USD/2 Pre-test	USD/2 Post-test	Change
ER	79.2	76.29	78.86	+2.57
FO	65.35	68.50	69.86	+1.36
PAC	46.86	46.86	47.14	+0.28
PA	32.91	33.86	34.43	+0.57

The USD students scored lower on the ER pre-test and post-test students mean established by the initial CCAI research. All other pre-test scores equaled or surpassed the established based student mean scores.

Journals

Of 14 participants in the study, 10 kept journals in the fall and only six during spring semester. These journals consistently revealed the students' initial discomfort with their new responsibilities. They described both negative and positive feelings throughout each semester.

At the beginning of the academic year, a coordinator stated, "I had no idea what I was in for" and "If someone had told me how busy and different this year would be for me, I don't think I would have believed them." Other coordinators described their initial experiences as "stressful" or "more difficult than we thought." These feelings subsided once projects began. The journal entry indicated time limitations did not mean "that we were going to lower our standards for this program. We all felt commitment was the key issue." A mentoring project faced a challenge because orientation for USD student mentors emphasized tutoring and they expected casual big brother or big sister relationships. A mentor coordinator described their "high hopes" plummeting when volunteers became "angry, upset, confused, and disappointed."

Several students compared the two semesters in their spring journal, noting that they organized their time better the second semester. Generally, they attained the goals they set. A director saw the "big picture" more easily, but she interacted with people and felt more useful when coordinating a project. Former volunteers who became coordinators also saw their projects "from a new perspective" as they worked closely with agencies and accepted responsibility for the project.

Leadership

Many students said they had assumed leadership responsibility for the first time. A student commented that this made him feel uncomfortable because "I am introverted. . . (and) do not like to take positions of leadership." Another had never facilitated a group before he led a community service project.

A student who attended an Associated Students "Leadership Conference" wrote that she learned people take different leadership roles, which helped her "recognize different styles of leadership." Most students said they learned more about themselves as leaders through learning the need to see a bigger picture, the importance of trust among leaders and followers, and the necessity to empower others. "My views on volunteering and my role as a volunteer expanded," wrote one coordinator. Another student expressed excitement when she put her ideas into action and saw results. A director felt she assumed a more passive role, interacting less with agencies and more within the AS Community Service program.

Coordinators realized developing trust took time. Students felt responsible for service recipients and for volunteers, wanting a good experience for them.

Several people mentioned empowerment and the need to delegate. A director described her past motto, doing something herself if she wanted it done. So when trying to empower others, "I had to bite my tongue sometimes. . . . Now I know how parents feel when they don't want to tell you what to do, but yet they want you to learn from your experience and mistakes." Including the volunteers in the leadership process meant:

> If I need help, I ask for it. I used to think that being a leader was taking everything on yourself to complete, but I have really learned that this is

> untrue. I have ten able-bodied people who want to help and who have as much time and heart invested in this project as I have. I have learned to compromise. . .to see that my way is not always the best way. I developed my listening skills in reference to my co-coordinator, my tutors, and my tutee.

One student identified problems connected with peer leadership and found it "hard to believe that our volunteers treat their professors with as little respect as they treated us as their project coordinator." Acting as a peer leader proved to be "a valuable experience," and all participants began to cite ways they grew personally. When students wrote about specific skills they attained, they used descriptors like "more capable," not so self-conscious, and getting better.

Skills and Knowledge

Journal entries frequently mentioned communication skills, including listening and facilitating. Students learned to listen to each other, volunteers, and persons in the community who received service. The coordinator of a tutoring project stated "these kids can teach you just as much, or more, as you can teach them." Several participants who coordinated youth programs found it difficult to "get through to a teenager" and felt it just as difficult for teens to connect with the college students.

Facilitating skills also grew. Students leading reflection groups benefited from the volunteers' thinking, which helped coordinators "put things into better perspective." Communication with agencies proved to be awkward for student coordinators, especially when calling agencies for the first time. Once they established working relationships, leaders worked with agency liaisons to solve problems, sometimes very difficult ones. Learning about school systems helped students communicate within the system.

"Time management" appeared in almost all journals as a crucial skill to develop. Anxiety surfaced because students wanted to "do everything in a short amount of time." Students mentioned how many details they handled, even in a small project. Time commitments needed for coordinating programs surprised them, but journals indicated the time was "well spent" and provided opportunities to learn self discipline. Frustration surfaced when a student looked back, "I could have done this or that," but they concluded "at least I did something."

Students gained knowledge about issues within the community, the ways that agencies addressed issues, and opportunities and resources available to people wanting to help. Project coordinators encountered issues regarding diversity by working with students and service recipients from a variety of ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds.

Perceptions of Others

More entries focused on perception changes than any other category, particularly the participants' perceptions about USD volunteers serving in the community and the populations receiving service. Entries about student volunteers contained both positive and negative comments.

Volunteers. Positive descriptors of student volunteers included "enthusiastic," "dedicated," and "the neatest people I have met at USD." Volunteers, according to one coordinator, brought "positive and uplifting attitudes." They chose to volunteer when "too often you run into people doing things for the wrong reasons and/or not enjoying what they're doing." Seeing students give valuable time made their coordinator "think society isn't so bad." Another coordinator planned two events, a successful one where students were enthusiastic, and the other filled with problems. Even when problems arose, the "great group of students rolled with the punches." Another coordinator

praised MEChA members who "served as good male role models" for Spanish-speaking junior high students, because they had similar experiences in childhood.

The most frequent complaints referred to student volunteers "not showing up," even though "they sought us," a coordinator recalled. Volunteers made the commitment knowing the requirements and their failure to return phone messages caused coordinators to label them, "our delinquent volunteers." The coordinator wondered whether "more harm than good" occurred in cases where "volunteers made commitments they could not keep with children who are in need of someone to trust and depend upon. . ."

Other negative comments focused on recruitment problems. A project coordinator was "amazed how many people said they were too busy." Her own demanding schedule made this hard to hear and she guessed they never had a touching experience of helping others "or else they would be hooked like I am." Another coordinator complained that students with disciplinary problems should not be referred to her project: "people should do community service because they want to, not because they are forced."

Recipients of service. Homeless kids who seemed to do so well and AIDS patients with positive attitudes, friendliness and willingness to be "so open with their information" surprised the coordinators and altered their perceptions. A housing project coordinator decided, "poverty imposes stressors on humans that appear to break even the wills of the strongest parents," yet children are the ones who suffer. She believed their project could give children a sense of belonging and provide role models during their critical years.

Coordinators needed to support USD volunteers who tutored junior high students. Volunteers worried about doing the "right thing" when cultural and learning differences existed. They had to deal with prejudices among younger

students. Each junior high group had its own rules and, if one student broke a rule, a gang member might take offense and start carrying a knife. Volunteers saw neighborhood kids learning traditional customs from immigrant parents while growing up in an American, predominately white society. The coordinator questioned how to deal with these issues. She mused:

> Sure you have to adapt to American style of living, but you should be able to recognize traditional customs that may be very important to your culture. One thing that is important is to have respect for each and every individual. This means understanding them as a person and understanding their ethnic or cultural background. . . .being aware of situations such as these helps to prepare me for any future involvement.

Agencies and schools. Perceptions about agencies also changed for student coordinators. One student started as a tutor meeting a specific child's needs and "began to see a light" as coordinator, when she started to see how communities respond to human needs. She began to conceptualize "community service as a whole." However, it amazed coordinators that some agencies needed a month's notice before volunteers could help within their programs instead of accepting any help offered. Another noted "you can only achieve as much as the organization you are working with will allow." Even with advanced planning, an agency's immediate needs can change and effect USD events. Coordinators seemed to have limited previous awareness of service delivery systems or problems, they developed new perspectives and discovered agencies may not want services that students offer.

Influence on Others

Participants questioned whether they influenced volunteers. Most coordinators felt volunteers came with good intentions and continued without

influence from anyone else. Another coordinator reported volunteer comments about enjoying their project and thought volunteer satisfaction "had something to do with our hard work." It was difficult, noted a leader, to influence volunteers through training and reflections when they came only one time.

Coordinators discussed their influence on children and adults who received service. The importance of mutual "respect" between USD volunteers and children they tutored appeared in several journals. One entry summarized the influence of the tutoring project as "a sense of constancy in these children's lives when it is often nonexistent. . .[which] can make all the difference to a child in a broken home."

Decision-Making

Three participants reflected on decisions relating to their community service leadership. One student decided to "go on to graduate school and become a child psychologist." She believed involvement in the community should be "a way of life" filling an empty part of her life and adding something wonderful to the lives of others. Another coordinator realized her community service changed her forever and she would always remain involved.

One pre-med student questioned how she could best serve the community, by interacting directly with people or by assuming a leadership position. While she saw the importance of project coordination, she found more personal enjoyment in working directly with people in need. This student met a practicing physician who volunteered and amazed her with "his dedication for helping people and the reward he gained." She did not resolve her dilemma, but acknowledged that interacting with people seemed more powerful than coordinating projects.

Support

Students praised all of the student directors, coordinators, graduate students, and professional staff. Students particularly appreciated the graduate assistant who began mid-year, because they had not felt supported during the fall semester. All directors and coordinators appreciated their team peers "not only co-workers but friends" who complemented each other's personalities. Team peers taught more than one director expected because they shared the work and their different styles and paces "amended" the other's ideas. One student found herself striving for her best because another coordinator let her know that she wanted to "make sure I pull my own weight." Other coordinators described fellow coordinators as hilarious, good, patient, understanding, hard-working, and enjoyable work partners.

Planning retreats held each semester and monthly meetings helped students receive new ideas and motivated them to try new things. The fall weekend merited the description "cool" by a student who said while he didn't usually "get into bonding," the members of this group "all had a common interest. . . .Everyone there you knew had at least a little compassion and kindness in the heart." Community Service Committee coordinators reported the group activities developed overall teamwork and "bonded" everyone together.

Interviews

General themes emerged in students' comments about the impact of being community service leaders. At least one student in each of the six focus groups commented that they developed a greater, more well-rounded understanding of the world and of issues. One student said the "people around us wear blinders. . .when you go into the community. . .it opens your eyes that

there are different ways of living." Students told of skills they developed and frustrations they faced, which helped them grow.

Expansion of world view dominated the general comments. Several students felt the value of education increased through their real life experiences. One change focused on what a coordinator termed "politics . . .working the different agencies and even with the faculty." A student saw community service leadership as "a chance to take things that I learned in the classroom and really apply them to real life. . .and to see how they held up outside of theoretical discussions." Goals shifted for another student who wanted her career to be "a path I could take that could benefit the common good of a lot more people."

Over half the interviewees identified frustrations, particularly at the beginning and toward the middle of spring semester when volunteer commitments waned. Several students questioned whether it was worthwhile being responsible for a project and thought they served the community better as volunteers. Yet all the students identified skills they developed, most often when they felt "hassled." These skills included the ability to organize, manage time, and feel more confident as a leader.

Leadership

The words "empowerment" or "empower" came up in every interview except one. That group struggled with whether their definition of leadership changed. Their initial definition came from a sports orientation where leadership meant "a person stood out in a crowd, didn't conform to the norm, didn't succumb to peer pressures. . .being a role model. . .being charismatic, dynamic. . .kind of stands above the crowd." While students in this group acknowledged the community service experience was different because "we were doing it together," their definition "toned down a bit" because they did not

feel they took "full leadership." While a leader should not be distant, they concluded a leader "has a little more experience and knowledge and finesse and is a little further along on the same path."

Other groups described past definitions of leadership as happening when a person was outspoken, taking over, being in charge, or doing everything. New definitions included the terms delegation, shared leadership, and guide. A guide lets others "do their own thing." In discussing the concept of shared leadership, participants acknowledged one leader could not always be sure where the group should go. The leader could have an ideal for the group, but should also focus on what others want. Synergy could occur because shared leadership gave everyone who was involved an "incentive for it to work. . .they have a lot more invested in the project and they are a lot more committed that way."

One group discussed leadership as educational for leaders and for volunteers. After the director provided basic orientation for coordinators, they began to "creatively start their ideas and their programs." Student directors asked program coordinators to give monthly group presentations on relevant topics, sharing the responsibility for training. A student felt "empowerment was happening, so that made me feel we were successful."

One group talked about different skills and styles as more effective in one situation than another. Variables included size of the group and how "you see yourself in that position." Each individual, a student said, has faults and "you find people who don't agree with you, but that's good because then you realize that there are different ways of doing things."

Student leaders described their frustrations when working with peers. While it was "really interesting to work with people that are so close to our ages," we learned "a lot about what to do and what not to do." Problems in

working with peers came up throughout the interview process. Friends expected the coordinators to overlook it when they missed a required event.

Skills and Knowledge

Communication. Communication topped the list of skills acquired by students. Several improved their ability to speak in front of groups. Interaction with student volunteers, agency contacts, other coordinators, and persons who controlled funding made project planning and implementation difficult. One student realized "I think about where the other person is coming from rather than just thinking of how I myself would want to be treated" because everyone is different. "Listening is probably the most important thing" reported another student.

Coordinators who led reflection groups felt their facilitating skills improved. Students who participated in interviewing the seminar instructor said they developed confidence in their interviewing skills and in being interviewed. Others mentioned they became more assertive. Comfort grew in communicating with all types of people, particularly in working with peers as "a lot harder than I thought it would be. . .but I learned to deal with that."

Funding issues caused major communication problems for one student director in that "the whole money situation was really difficult. . .we wanted to do things that we thought were very important for the development of our coordinators for their projects, but we didn't get the money. . . .we put a lot of work in and ended up not having a very successful program because of it." The directors saw "how much they [coordinators] are putting into it and how much dedication they have, yet there's other people telling us we can not recognize them properly." They felt their community service program devalued.

Time management. Participants in two groups agreed time management became necessary because their new responsibilities took more

"hidden hours that no one knows about." Students described how they put pressure on themselves and learned to organize themselves because they could not do everything. A majority of students talked about the challenge of getting "people out" as volunteers in their projects. Things do "go wrong" stated a leader who said she learned "if it doesn't work, you just have to try another route. . . .You have to come at things from different angles and you have to have adaptability and diligence." They agreed that problem-solving takes time.

Organizational skills. Many students spoke about organizational skills they learned, including "business aspects" of working with budgets, interviewing, keeping records, and documenting information for project evaluation and grant reports. Problem-solving became necessary, as when a parent interrupted a tutoring session. The coordinator sought help from the housing development staff for both short term and long term solutions. Another type of problem-solving involved learning to work with a partner.

Knowledge and attitudes. Self knowledge grew, according to students who gained confidence while learning about politics, when "you think that best intentions are all you need." Several coordinators increased their capacity to be patient and adaptable. Another talked about how his expectations made him work harder. Then if things did not go as expected, questions arose about potential problems with other events. One coordinator struggled to understand whether her expectations were not met due to a problem in her expectations or in the program itself. She wondered how to recognize which it was and learned to accept ambiguity.

Attitudes changed and awareness of issues expanded, according to participants in focus groups. One student lacked previous interest in community service because no one ever encouraged him to become involved. After his leadership experience, he became adamant about volunteering and

remaining active as a volunteer. He knew homeless people and abused children existed but "when you actually go out and interact with people who are real and have problems" these issues cannot be ignored. He mentioned learning more about AIDS and homeless people, which "opened my eyes and my mind" and helped him lose some prejudices.

Perceptions of Others

Recipients of service. Change in perceptions coincided with the students' increased knowledge about issues. A student spoke about the kindness and strength of those taking care of people with AIDS. He bemoaned knowing about people his age "doing things that are completely stupid" and wished they would be more careful after seeing the effects of AIDS.

Several young children surprised a coordinator who learned they woke themselves up and put themselves to bed, prepared their own food, and went to school on their own. Behavior disorders among the children reflected things going on in the home and helped college students become more understanding. The number of racial problems in the public school surprised another coordinator, especially when younger students talked about different kinds of gangs. It also became clear that not all children within the same public school system had "the same access to resources." A number of students saw striking differences in these junior high students' backgrounds and her own. Constant student turnover caused instability in the neighborhood public school, in contrast to a private school where students saw the same people in their classes throughout junior and senior high.

Developmentally delayed young students, matched one-to-one as buddies to USD students, amazed another coordinator when she saw "they are capable of so much." She initially thought these young people needed constant supervision, but several of them took a bus by themselves to a beach event.

Some of the students who are developmentally delayed seemed really smart and caught on "to pretty much everything." However, she noticed different levels of ability existed.

The community. Perceptions about schools and agencies also changed as coordinators communicated with their respective liaison person. At one school the previous coordinator had described a school principal as "a pain to deal with," but the 1993-94 coordinator just "walked into his office" the first day and established better communication for the year. Even then she thought "we are doing the project for the school and sometimes they [school staff] come across as if they think it is a burden." Another coordinator complained about agencies where communication broke down and staff failed to return calls. She found it difficult to find agencies that would accommodate volunteers for her one-time project. While her frustration remained high, she understood she had to be persistent and "they have things that are going on that are way more important to them than someone calling from USD."

Volunteers. Many comments focused on perception changes regarding USD volunteers. In the fall, coordinators thought USD students seemed very interested and by spring, coordinators grew to expect nothing from them. Coordinators in one project became particularly critical of volunteers who did not live up to their commitment. One student leader complained:

> I don't want to talk to them [volunteers] about anything. If they approach me, if they just want to say 'Hi,' I get defensive because I am about ready to explode. I feel like saying 'Where were you last week? How come you haven't done anything?'. . .I don't like to have to reprimand my friends. It's just very uncomfortable. When we work with our peers, I think they expect a lot from us. I guess it goes both ways. Maybe they didn't see it [volunteering] for what we see it and maybe

that's why their commitment to it isn't what we expected. . .for them it is really no big deal, if they get it done they get it done, if they don't they don't. Whereas for us, it is a big deal.

Disappointment became acute when a coordinator thought a student "would be great" and finally concluded that she "just didn't work out at all." One coordinator talked about the rewards of volunteering and "thought that everyone wanted to do it," only to discover difficulties recruiting volunteers. Another leader became outraged when sorority members complained about having to do a minimum of four hours of service each semester. A majority of coordinators agreed students who completed service as a class requirement or as restitution for breaking housing rules brought different attitudes to projects from students who really wanted to volunteer.

The number of USD students who chose not to volunteer prompted a comment that community service "doesn't seem to be one of the main important things in the USD community, yet it is written all over in the mission statement." Service seemed "unimportant to a lot of students." Not all coordinators perceived volunteers in their project negatively, as one student commented "people that you expect to not be the most helpful, are really helpful." Almost all coordinators felt other coordinators were a "really nice group to work with" throughout the year.

Influence on Others

Volunteers. Throughout the interviews, participants questioned whether they really influenced volunteers and wondered how to identify influence. They did not expect volunteers to give them feedback. However, several judged their influence on whether any volunteers applied for a coordinator position. When a volunteer in a project did apply for a coordinator

position, the current coordinator believed "we did something right" and ran the project successfully because the applicant saw no great risk in continuing.

Any influence on volunteers, according to one student, happened because they connected with people in agencies or schools. For example, many volunteers had never talked to a person who was HIV positive and students "learned that they could touch them and not get sick." Volunteers' personal experiences opened their eyes to issues that prompted them to continue as volunteers.

The most comments centered around USD students who did not volunteer. One participant felt she influenced others by giving a Spanish class presentation which elicited "billions of questions" about community service. She said "you almost have to try to influence people who are not involved because they don't know." Some non-participants wondered if they had enough patience. Coordinators had explained: "It doesn't take a superwoman or a superman," "It just takes a willingness to try," ". . .your average Joe can go and be a kid's pal for a day and you can do it too." When recruiting people to volunteer, a student emphasized she wanted to inform others about service opportunities and not "force it down someone's throat." One coordinator thought other students were "taken back when they hear what I do" because it "is so far from their world." Students failed to understand the importance of leading a project each week, asking "Can't you just not go"?

The community. Coordinators expressed confidence they influenced the agency or school staff and those served. Staff at a homeless shelter always asked coordinators when they would return and assured them the homeless teens enjoyed the events. A student thought others in the community perceived USD as "a school on the hill, set apart from everything" and hoped volunteer projects helped people understand "we care and we are not just

concerned about ourselves." Mentoring and tutoring project coordinators identified their greatest influence when children began believing in themselves. They felt simple things like learning to play kick ball gave young children faith they could accomplish other things. Perhaps, mused a student, these children will want to attend college someday after seeing USD and hearing about our experiences. Another student realized their influence may be realized "years down the line."

The student directors decided they influenced the community service coordinators to some extent through education and by talking to campus groups about volunteer opportunities. They maintained that their influence on both USD and greater San Diego communities was indirect and doubted anyone saw or understood what they did.

Decision-making

Community service leadership increased awareness of issues affecting "the way I work and do things," according to one focus group participant. Students saw changes in daily decisions, such as watching what they say or listening more carefully to discussions about social issues. One individual wondered, ". . .why didn't I see that before. [community service] opens your mind and eyes in so many ways. Sometimes it's staggering, you just sit down and hold your head."

Decisions about time priorities helped a student say 'no' to other activities in favor of community service. Awareness of "how the world works and not just about how my little world works" became a new goal for one participant, while another talked about how his ideas became "totally different" after being a community service leader.

Students said leadership experience affected their decisions about career directions and graduate school choices, including a pre-law student who started

looking for community service opportunities as a factor in deciding where to send law school applications. Two students reevaluated their reasons for applying to medical school, one "wanting to provide affordable care," and the other, shifting her thinking about national health service corps from being an obligation to offering "an opportunity to help a community that wouldn't have a good doctor." Another student changed her major from biology to psychology, with a goal of working with families because community service "allowed for me to see a new side of myself and see potential where I hadn't seen it before... because it hadn't been opened up yet."

A mentoring project coordinator, who worked closely with junior high students, previously wanted to be a lawyer who represented children in court, but realized "I was too emotional to do that." An education major altered her plan to become a classroom teacher because she thought the "high potential for burnout" would make her apathetic. She still planned to teach, but not in the same classroom every day.

Other students considered going into the Peace Corps or other volunteer work after graduation. A business major said community service made him feel as though he lived on "two different ends of the spectrum, making money or helping out your neighbor," and found it really hard to see how to fit them together. He hoped he would never "get in the fast lane" and neglect putting in his time for the community. An accounting major also questioned having so much focus on money and now wanted to make some sort of difference in the community.

Support for Community Service Leaders

Students in almost every focus group saw the Community Service Center as a place where coordinators could find support. Someone was always there, according to one student, and other coordinators, directors, and

professional staff were there for you. A student reported "flying off the handle" at the Center and appreciated reassurance like "now, now, we will work this out, don't worry about it."

All but one coordinator shared project responsibility with another coordinator and only one "team" experienced difficulty working together. Everyone else praised the coordinator partnerships as very helpful except when communication broke down. They described collaborative working relationships where tensions could be released, friendships developed, and problems shared because the other coordinators knew the background of the problem. A student felt she would not have been so effective without her close working relationship with the other project coordinator.

Most coordinators felt student directors and the graduate student "took a lot of things off our shoulders." The second semester graduate student received special commendation since students had minimal advising support during the first semester. The professional staff provided "a safety net" through their willingness to listen and to share knowledge about the projects. One coordinator called their staff advisor "amazing" because of her "support for all the little things" and another student said that she "would have been completely and utterly lost without her." One student particularly appreciated the amount of freedom given them by the professional staff.

Volunteers encouraged the coordinators by complimenting them about their doing a great job. Those people who received service boosted the coordinators, especially the "kids" from the neighborhood adjoining USD where so many projects took place. Agency staff also made positive comments about coordinators. Other individuals credited staff of a national organization and family members who always "know that I have had a rough day or something went real well."

Research Process

The participants in the study agreed the journals and focus group interviews helped them reflect and meant more because they could explain themselves. The journal helped us share "our direct ideas." A student explained:

> My natural reaction when certain things happen, especially bad things, is to try to run away from them and to not think about it. And that is the worst thing you can possibly do. When I write in my journal, it makes me think. . .

Both the journal and the focus group interview let one coordinator "really sit back and analyze it [the experience] and learn from it." Writing things down made a student "sort things out" in her mind by relating thoughts so someone else could understand her feelings. Comments made in the focus group stimulated a student to think about things she "probably would not normally think about" to the extent she became aware of how she changed as a person. Without the research, she continued, "I wouldn't have taken the time. . ."

A student felt the questionnaires could be helpful but he was not sure how. The CCAI survey seemed difficult for a coordinator because of the wording and because she could not see the point of it. One student felt her responses depended upon her most recent experiences while another said her answers depended upon her mood. A participant looked forward to taking the CCAI Inventory the second time because the results from the first time were not what she expected. Just writing down answers failed to benefit a student who wanted to discuss the answers. Generally, very few thought the questionnaires helped them gain insights.

In contrast, almost all participants thought the research provided opportunities for reflection. A coordinator concluded that the study made us

"look at ourselves" and dealt with us as an entity separate from the projects. She commented that the coordinators provide reflection time for volunteers but coordinators' monthly meetings focused on information sharing. General sentiment emerged that talking about their community service leadership helped each participant realize "where you have come and what you have learned."

CHAPTER FIVE

CROSS CASE ANALYSIS

Introduction to the Study

To investigate the impact of community service leadership on student development, I selected two sites where a two-year study was done. I chose Santa Clara University and the University of San Diego, two universities that support student community service, both philosophically and fiscally. The study, which began in the fall 1992 and concluded in May 1994, resulted in four case studies. Archival information, surveys, questionnaires, journals or reflection papers, and focus group interviews generated data from a total of 56 student leaders.

As context for the comparative data, I summarized differences and similarities between the histories of the two programs and tabulated demographic data about the student leaders who participated in the study. Comparisons of questionnaire scores and general analysis of journal and focus group themes were made. Following these summaries, I answered each of the six research questions. The chapter concludes with recommendations and needs for future research.

Comparisons of Two University Community Service Programs

Program Similarities and Differences

Santa Clara University and the University of San Diego share many commonalties as regional West Coast universities. Both Catholic, private institutions make strong commitments to values-based education, seeking to

prepare students to be contributing citizens in their own communities and in society as a whole.

Students initiated the Santa Clara Christian Action Program (SCCAP) in 1965, seven years before the merger which resulted in the University of San Diego. During the late 1960s, SCCAP, renamed Santa Clara Community Action Program, became a center for student activism. SCCAP remained a student led program through the 1970s to the early 1990s.

USD students volunteered for community service from the time of the merger, but without the central structure existing at SCU. Top USD administration and faculty initiated planned growth of volunteer involvement in 1986. As a staff member, I guided students in developing a community service program structure similar to SCCAP. Other differences in the two programs became evident during the studies.

Table 7.

Comparisons between SCU and USD community service programs.

Issue	SCU	USD
Training/advising	Students; staff advised the director	Staff; some student leader training/advising
Funding	SCU, endowment	USD, grants, endowment, Associated Students
Community link	Existing community programs and student developed projects	Projects developed by students
Link to curriculum	Primarily separate, some course-based volunteers	Field experience credit for leaders and volunteers, some course-based volunteers

Both programs expanded during the mid-1980s. SCCAP remained student directed during the expansion, while the impetus for USD's program

growth came from administration. SCU student directors trained and advised student project coordinators, whereas professional staff at USD trained and advised student coordinators in conjunction with minimal student director involvement during the first year but with a significantly increased amount the second. SCCAP began receiving funding from SCU as an independent organization in 1981, separate from Associated Students. USD Community Service Committee received program funding from Associated Students, in addition to a number of private and federal grants that supported USD program development and funded graduate student advisers. Both universities provided professional staff advisors for the community service programs. Most USD student coordinators developed new projects within schools and agencies, while approximately half of the SCCAP projects linked with existing agency or school volunteer programs. Therefore, some SCU student project coordinators interacted minimally with volunteers once they were placed, while USD student coordinators served in their projects with the volunteers. Neither program linked directly with curriculum, but some students from both universities engaged in course related service-learning through student coordinated projects. USD offered one-unit field experience credit options for several literacy projects and for the student leaders.

Similarities also existed between the two programs. Both programs moved into rooms in their respective university centers, SCCAP in 1985 and USD Community Service in 1990. The office spaces provided areas for student leaders to plan projects, collaborate with each other, and link with project volunteers. When this study began, between 25 and 30 students became community service leaders in each program for an academic year. During the 1992-94 study, SCU and USD were both implementing a major foundation grant to institutionalize diversity, although only the USD grant

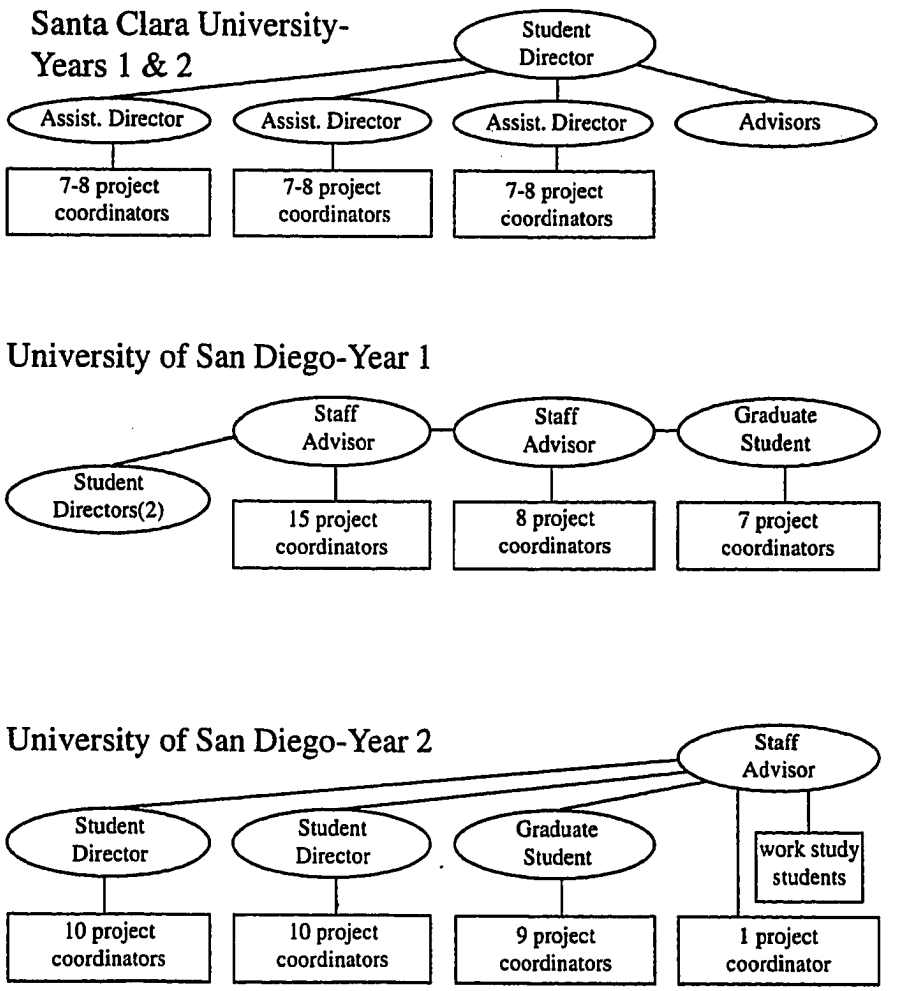
provided funds for community service to hire a graduate student and fund project special events.

Program Structures and Goals

The following data, including community service leaders' responsibilities and benefits, came from archival information and discussions with students and advisors. Program structures and goals provide a context for the study but do not relate directly to the research questions. The following charts display structures of the respective programs.

Figure 5.

Comparisons: SCU and USD community service program structures.



The SCCAP assistant directors at SCU advised program coordinators during both years of the study, with the student director overseeing the entire program. The Volunteer Resources staff at USD advised student directors and coordinators through the 1992-93 academic year. The next year, the Volunteer Resources Assistant Director trained USD student directors and a graduate student to advise project coordinators. The amount of student versus staff responsibility highlights a clear difference between the two programs. The SCU staff advisor met once a week with the SCCAP director, while the USD staff member advised community service leaders as a primary responsibility.

The long SCCAP history generated students' pride of ownership, articulated in their written mission statement as "an important part of the educational process that Santa Clara University offers." SCCAP student leaders talked about fostering social awareness and deepening an understanding of community problems. USD students discussed community service as part of a values-based institution, but developed no program mission statement.

The 1993-94 SCCAP student director wrote a position paper about the need to "create a supportive atmosphere in which all students can have a powerful voice in addressing social injustices" by raising campus awareness. She wrote to faculty and staff about the goal, and SCCAP leaders held information sessions in dormitories. The student leaders established and met goals to add student-initiated projects, increase diversity in SCCAP, and improve their education component through structured reflection.

The first year of the study, USD staff worked with student leaders to improve orientation and reflection sessions. The second year, student directors assumed greater responsibility for advising student coordinators, and

coordinators continued to provide orientation and reflection for volunteers. The structures of the two university community service programs paralleled more closely by the second year, as USD student directors assumed more responsibility.

Student Leaders' Responsibilities and Benefits

SCU student leaders assumed entire responsibility for SCCAP during both years of the study. The SCCAP director handled overall program responsibilities, working 20 to 30 hours a week to serve as university liaison, manage the budget, and work with assistant directors to provide coordinator training. Each of three assistant directors advised seven or eight coordinators through individual and weekly "team" meetings, working approximately 20 hours a week. Coordinators spent five hours in the office each week, coordinated their project, and attended mandatory retreats and meetings. The student director, assistant directors, and coordinators all received stipends proportionate to their responsibilities and time commitments.

At USD, professional staff and a graduate student advised coordinators during the first year, then student directors and a graduate student advised coordinators the second year. During the 1992-93 year, the USD student director planned special events and ran monthly meetings. The following year, two student directors trained and advised the coordinators. Directors received nominal tuition credit both years through Associated Students and, second year directors received payment for additional 15 work-study hours each week. Coordinators planned and organized new projects connected to schools or agencies, not within existing volunteer programs. They kept no office hours and received no stipend. The professional staff, graduate student, and work-study students staffed the USD Community Service Center both years. Two-thirds of the directors and coordinators chose to receive one unit of credit

through a "Leadership through volunteerism" field experience seminar, by completing 40 hours of workshops and project coordination.

Comparative Data: Four Case Studies

Survey Summaries

Surveys generated demographic data and responses to several open-ended questions. Students shared reasons they volunteered and assumed community service leadership positions.

Demographics

Combined demographics from the two years at SCU paralleled closely data from USD.

Table 8.

Compiled demographic data from the four case studies.

	SCU		USD	
	Yr. 1 - 2	Total	Yr. 1 - 2	Total
Coordinators	8 - 12 ongoing commitment	20	10 - 8 ongoing	18
	2 - 2 one-time event	5	4 - 4 one-time	8
Directors	3 - 0	3	0 - 2	2
Gender	12 - 12 women	24	9 - 12 women	21
	2 - 2 men	4	5 - 2 men	7
Ethnicity	0 - 0 Black	0	1 - 0 Black	1
	3 - 3 Asian	6	0 - 2 Asian	2
	9 - 8 White	17	8 -10 White	18
	2 - 3 Latino	5	5 - 2 Latino	7
Year in school	2 - 1 sophomore	3	2 - 3 sophomore	5
	8 - 4 junior	12	8 - 5 junior	13
	5 - 8 senior	13	4 - 6 senior	10
TOTAL PARTICIPANTS		28		28

Projects were defined by whether volunteers made an *ongoing* commitment or participated only once at a *one-time* event. USD students coordinated more one-time projects than SCU students. Of those who

participated in the study, women outnumbered men in both programs: one to six at SCU and one to three at USD. Both programs had a majority of White students who participated in the study, 61% at SCU and 64% at USD. No freshmen and few sophomores coordinated projects.

Open-ended Questions

All 56 participants, 28 from each university, answered the survey questions. In response to a question regarding why they volunteered, SCU students wanted to help those in need and give ideas for change. One student stated [I want to] "make a difference in a world I found extremely unfair and frustrating." Several students saw SCCAP as a way to use their time constructively. A number of SCU students cited a quest for learning as their dominant motivation, because it tied into their college learning process and linked with the Jesuit mission. USD students also identified wanting to make a difference, hoping to help people less advantaged than they, and believing "it's my way of life. . .I was put on this earth to serve." Others mentioned career goals, interest in types of programs offered, desire to be more active at USD, and opportunities to meet new people. A majority of participants from both universities wanted to help others, congruent with other studies on why students volunteer (Fagan, 1992; Serow, 1991). SCU students mentioned learning about social issues as a strong motivation, which was not mentioned by USD students.

Eleven SCU students said their parents had volunteered and influenced them as good role models. Of the USD students, seven said their parents' volunteering influenced them. Ten USD coordinators stated their parents had no influence, eight because their parents had not volunteered. A number of students from both schools wrote N/A or made no comment about their parents' influence. Only 18 of the 56 leaders credited parents as influencing

their community service. Fitzsimmons (1986) found a negative correlation with students' community service involvement if the mother volunteered and a positive correlation when the father volunteered. Students failed to mention which parent volunteered in the open-ended, general survey question but generally students did not see parents as an influence.

When asked in the survey about their first volunteer experience, 12 SCU students reported they had volunteered during grade school in nursing homes, churches, schools, or a soup kitchen. Five SCU students volunteered between ages 12 to 14 in similar settings, and 10 began in high school. Only one SCU coordinator first engaged in community service during college. USD students generally started their volunteer experiences at a later age than SCU students. Only two stated they first volunteered in grade school and nine in high school, primarily in schools and nursing homes. Five USD students volunteered for the first time as college students, including one through a class and three in Student Literacy Corps. Astin (1990) found high school volunteering as the strongest predictor of college students' volunteering, though its consistency dropped during college. In this small study group, most students had volunteered in high school and increased their commitment to community service in college.

Almost all SCCAP leaders brought extensive experience from within the SCU community service programs and expressed great loyalty to SCCAP. Frequently stated reasons for seeking leadership opportunities included: providing opportunities for others, putting leadership abilities into action, and seeking personal growth or change. Approximately half of the USD students first volunteered in their projects and then became coordinators, but they brought less experience than SCU coordinators. Reasons for seeking leadership appeared quite similar between the two schools. USD coordinators

wanted to assume more responsibility, or to make sure their projects continued by bringing skills, experience, and ideas to move projects toward their potential. One student wanted to do something meaningful in college, after returning from a summer abroad study program.

Questionnaires

The Defining Issues Tests (DIT) were administered at the beginning and end of each year. Standardized scores from a secondary analysis of research by Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) were: Private, liberal arts, 40.16; church related 50.49. All but one SCU pre- test score placed above both standardized scores. SCU scores changed very little from pre-test to post test, and one post-test score lowered less than one point. All USD scores were mid-range between the two standardized scores, but more positive change occurred between the pre-test and post-test scores.

Table 9.

Comparisons of DIT scores from the four case studies.

	SCU 1 (n=14)	SCU 2 (n=14)	USD 1 (n=14)	USD 2 (n=14)
Pre	54.76	50.11	45.99	43.55
Post	53.8	50.84	49.7	44.76
Change	-0.96	+0.73	+3.71	+1.21

Students completed the Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) at the beginning and end of their year as community service leaders. The inventory was designed to increase self-understanding and to improve interaction with people from other cultures. I combined the pre-test and post-test scores for all 56 participants to compare their mean scores with the mean scores of students in the original study.

The combined community service pre-test scores from four case studies (n=56) surpassed the student mean established during initial CCAI research. Scores increased in all categories from pre-test to post-test in all four case studies except one. The PA (Personal Autonomy) mean decreased slightly for the 1992-93 USD group.

Table 10.

Comparisons of CCAI scores from the four case studies (n=56).

	Student Mean	Combined Pre-test	Combined Post-test	Change
ER (Emotional Resilience)	79.20	80.42	83.30	+2.88
FO (Flexibility/Openness)	65.35	71.33	73.19	+1.86
PAC (Perceptual Acuity)	46.86	48.23	48.82	+0.59
PA (Personal Autonomy)	32.91	34.94	35.60	+0.66

Frequency distributions and percentile ranking for the DIT and CCAI scores spread widely in all pre-tests and post-tests. For example, frequency distributions ranged from 16.6 to 71.7 on the pre-DIT, and from 13.3 to 83.3 on the post-DIT. Standard deviations, as a measure of dispersion, also indicated wide spread of composite DIT and CCAI mean scores in all demographic categories. The standard deviations of pre- and post-DIT scores of students according to their year in college, as an example, ranged from 11.82 to 15.42.

Results of the t-tests for paired samples indicated no significant difference in DIT scores with the total population or within either university program. There were significant increases for SCU pretest to posttest scores in several CCAI categories: Emotional Resilience (FO), significant to .010 (USD not significant at .200); Flexibility/Openness (FO), .010 (USD, .369); and Personal Autonomy (PA) .040 (USD, .906). No statistically significant

increases occurred in any categories for USD students. The SCU initial mean scores were higher in each of these three CCAI categories than the initial USD mean scores by from .25 to 1.79. I found no major differences in student leader training or in self reported interactions within their community service experience that could account for significant differences in cross-cultural adaptability. Astin's (1985) college impact theory stated that the level of involvement could help explain changes, and number of hours per week that SCU students engaged in community service activities exceeded most USD students' time involvement.

Journals and Interviews

All USD participants enrolled in a "Leadership through service-learning" field experience seminar for at least one semester. Because the seminar required journals, USD students generated more information than the one packet of SCU reflection papers I received each year. Focus group interviews generated rich descriptions through group interaction as Morgan (1988) described, by emphasizing interviewees' point of view. I combined findings from journals and interviews into the following categories which emerged from analysis of data: leadership; skills and knowledge; perceptions of others; influence on others; and decision-making.

Students discussed the impact of their community service leadership experiences, first in their journals and then during interviews. Data that relate to the research questions are discussed in that section. Student leaders expressed frustrations about forces that prompted change for them, not just how they changed, but reasons why they felt impelled to look at themselves and their responses.

Entries in both SCU and USD journals reported ambivalence regarding organizational demands of community service. Student leaders complained

about being busier than they expected, having unclear expectations about their responsibilities, and feeling unqualified as leaders. Students in every focus group talked about stress at the beginning of the year and disappointment in volunteers' commitments. They found fall recruitment difficult and saw volunteers losing interest in the spring. Several students from both universities questioned whether they should be coordinators because organizational responsibilities separated them from the projects' "real purpose." They missed closeness to the people served.

Students identified skills they had developed as directors or coordinators of ongoing or one-time events. Leaders from both universities identified growth in time management and communication skills. Students grappled with balancing community service, study, and social life. They struggled to handle conflict and compromise, to listen, and to facilitate groups.

In journals and interviews from both universities, students referred most frequently to changes in their perceptions regarding people they served. Many students worried about doing "the right thing" and felt unprepared by their "white" upbringing as they interacted with many diverse cultures. Going into the community helped students to discern how their own advantages contrasted with the lack thereof for people who were affected by complex societal problems, such as homelessness. Leaders moved to deeper levels of self-awareness. They contrasted their own school experiences with those in lower socio-economic areas. But, finding three engineers and a SCU graduate living in a homeless shelter was truly unsettling. The students felt vulnerable because they thought college educated people could avoid homelessness. They also sensed that they must defend their own socioeconomic background and resources. "I did get a lot of flack for. . .being from such a prestigious school," mused a coordinator.

Leaders also struggled with perceptions about their peers. Some praised the positive attitudes of volunteers; more bemoaned potential volunteers for not showing up or for having bad attitudes because they had to "volunteer" as a disciplinary sanction for breaking university rules. A number of coordinators complained about how hard recruitment seemed because students claimed to be "too busy."

Impressions of how the community service programs influenced other students on the campuses differed between the two programs. A SCU participant thought SCCAP generated a passion for justice among coordinators and gave community service high visibility on campus. USD coordinators agreed that they influenced each other by working collaboratively, but that the program failed to make much impact on the campus climate. USD student volunteers expressed gratitude to project coordinators for providing service opportunities; coordinators thought volunteers came with good intentions and did not think they had influenced them.

During interviews, leaders in both universities felt they influenced other students through casual conversations, classroom presentations, and by modeling commitment. They thought impact seemed minimal for students who participated in one-time events at either university. This paralleled the service-learning model developed by Delve, Mintz, and Stewart (1990). These authors theorized that students first explore group projects, then move to stronger commitments at higher stages of development.

SCU leaders "opened doors" for volunteers by providing opportunities, but volunteers already involved remained self-motivated and came to coordinators only if problems arose. USD students indirectly stimulated community service involvement when volunteers had a positive experience and recruited their friends, but they doubted anyone else in the university saw or

understood what they did. Two students, one each from SCU and USD, thought they influenced their parents to understand the value of service, as in the case of a father, a high school vice principal, who later began a community service program.

Every SCU student contemplated in the reflection papers deeper understanding of and commitment to social issues. Awareness of social problems prompted concern about balancing future work, family, and community responsibilities. During focus groups, participants from both universities talked about the significant impact that community service leadership made on their career decisions. Five or six students from each program applied or planned to apply for post-baccalaureate volunteer positions, including Peace Corps and Jesuit Volunteer Corps. Other students talked about seeking nonprofit organization careers or choosing companies valuing community outreach.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Responses to the Research Questions

Perceived Change as Community Service Leaders

In what ways did student leaders perceive they changed as a result of their community service experience?

Student leaders experienced significant personal change according to data generated by the four case studies. They experienced rewards and frustrations, took chances, and gained confidence. Community service offered different opportunities from those generally available to university students, because participants in this study grappled with grave societal problems. I asked students during focus group interviews if their perceptions about leadership had changed. Students from both universities talked about their

definitions and recognition of leadership; the importance of shared purpose; their influence on others; and the value of linking leadership, service, and education.

Several USD students identified community service as their first leadership opportunity; others talked about learning to delegate more effectively and developing trust among project volunteers. Students struggled to define leadership, as have theorists and practitioners throughout this century (Rost, 1991). USD students used language related to the study of leadership as defined in this study and introduced in the seminar, "Leadership through service-learning." They tried to clarify approaches of leaders and managers. One coordinator thought leadership occurred through community service because leaders shared responsibilities with volunteers, while managers told people what to do. Student leaders from both universities thought they empowered others as they saw links among complex community issues. They moved toward what Boyer (1984) called "the connectedness of things, an insight that touches the very foundation of morality" (p. 10).

First year discussions about leadership differed from second year discussions at both universities. During 1992-93, SCU directors tried to build a team by reaching agreement about the SCCAP purpose. They found it difficult to share leadership because the other student leaders resisted. During second year interviews, SCCAP participants perceived leadership as encouraging the initiative of others. They talked about shifting from being 'boss' to building a road between SCU students and the community. They dismissed their past definitions about leadership styles. One student "used to correlate leader with expert," others discussed how leaders also had to be learners as well as educators. One student used the teamwork metaphor that volunteers and players needed focus as well as empowerment.

USD students during the first year presented vastly different perceptions about leadership. One student wanted long-term change while another saw it necessary to monitor others' behaviors. Several students mentioned needing a common project goal, but no one discussed shared program purpose. Most second-year USD students disclaimed their past definitions of leadership in which a leader takes over and does everything. For them, community service leadership now meant working together and learning from one another. Two students questioned whether they had changed their understanding of leadership. They used a sports metaphor, leader as "a role model. . .being charismatic, dynamic. . .kind of stands above the crowd." However, they decided community service leaders needed both knowledge and experience.

Some students expanded their understanding of purpose or vision as a unifying force. During both years of the study, SCCAP program directors encouraged coordinators to embrace a mutual purpose. The 1993-94 director envisioned their program as having "a powerful voice in addressing social injustices." She linked SCCAP directly to the University's mission and SCU community service leaders also committed to this program mission. USD student leaders also connected community service to their University's mission, but did not develop a mission for their own program. This difference might relate to the history and maturity of the two programs, with USD a relatively new program, and in the midst of completely reorganizing their structure.

Students from both SCU and USD reflected in their journals that, through reciprocal learning, mutual influence ensued among college students and those persons receiving service. They all acknowledged that no one could see immediate results from service projects. USD students thought some of

their projects, such as a housing development literacy project or an after school KIDS recreation project, might be replicated in other places. SCU coordinators saw themselves as paving the way for future SCCAPers, not solving basic community problems. One SCU student linked program outcomes with classroom learning, recalling a sociology class discussion about difficulties young people living in housing projects face when they set too high goals for themselves. She questioned whether encouraging children to set such goals might be problematic. Everyone agreed that recipients of service might be positively or negatively influenced "years down the line."

The potential impact student leaders felt they had made on communities and universities helped them believe they could make a difference in our complex world. This idea was congruent with Astin's (1993) finding that volunteer work negatively correlated with a student view of having little power to change society. Coordinators felt uncomfortable with the word "influence" and did not think they influenced volunteers or other students to any great extent. However, they realized that their projects made changes in communities and that their programs contributed to milieus at both universities by putting the institutional missions into action. SCU leaders felt the university and other SCU students in general acknowledged SCCAP's influence on campus through attendance at organized informational events, and by hearing about their outreach to the greater community. USD students felt the administration recognized their presence, but that students, other than active volunteers, seemed generally unaware of the community service program.

Other students linked community service leadership and education, in agreement with Anson (1993), who described personal and educational transformations occurring through service-learning. A student wanted to

share what he learned when experiences "opened my eyes to realities of the world." Leaders from both schools realized the importance of linking service and learning, both for themselves and also for volunteers. USD coordinators assumed major responsibilities for initiating and implementing their projects, facilitating training, and leading reflection sessions. Some SCCAP coordinators offered training, but few planned reflection sessions as part of the projects connected to agency or school programs. Leaders incorporated more learning opportunities for volunteers during the second year. Reflection prepared students to reexamine service experiences and think critically, according to Stanton (1990a), through building theory from practice and "by thinking inductively and strengthening analysis and synthesis skills" (p. 350).

When reflecting about their community experiences, a SCU student committed to working harder on social issues advocacy and one USD student said he had a new vision for the "bigger picture" and for seeing the power of focused energy. It is important that leadership development programs include discussions of power and political realities, as Rost and Cosgrove (1987) have advocated. Student leaders from both universities learned about political realities through their interaction with community agency and school liaison persons.

Learning through Relationships

How did student leaders respond to and learn from their interactive relationships with other students, with those people who received service, and with community agencies or schools?

These interactions enhanced students' skills and knowledge about major social issues. SCU and USD participants gave similar responses about what they had learned from interactive relationships. Almost everyone gained confidence by meeting time demands, by facing complicated situations, and by

increasing communication and organizational skills. They noted great differences between being community service leaders and being volunteers. Leaders reflected that their interactions with others enhanced their communication and organizational skills. One leader stated that the most learning took place when she faced the most "hassle."

In all focus groups, students cited improved communication as their most obviously enhanced skill. Participants moved beyond the listening and facilitating skills they first mentioned in journals to accepting the priorities of others, developing clarity, and practicing good timing. One student noted how business students seemed to approach communication differently from students in other majors. Coordinators saw the importance of considering others' perspectives, being observant, and showing empathy.

Effective communication also required adapting to different attitudes, knowledge, and views about social issues. For example, the coordinator of an AIDS project described how volunteers chose a project for very different reasons. Some students just wanted to learn about the illness, while another had a friend who died of AIDS so she brought deep emotional commitment to the project.

Levels of learning also occurred in organizational skills. First, leaders mentioned challenges of time management and basic personal organization when they realized the complexity of organizing projects. Organizational skills had to improve due to "hidden hours" in coordinating projects. Later, students learned to live with ambiguity while dealing with many people and bureaucracies and realizing things "go wrong." One student mentioned how time management moved into "all areas of my life." Students used business skills, such as interviewing potential volunteers, budgeting for special projects, and keeping records for grant reports.

USD coordinators directly ran projects and handled complex problems with agency contacts. SCCAP directors and coordinators spent much energy on internal organizational issues. All the leaders talked about different types of teamwork when interacting with volunteers, each other, and agency or school liaisons. Astin (1985) found the amount of energy students put into activities to be directly proportional to learning, and students from both programs gave tremendous time and energy.

Participants gained knowledge about themselves and the bigger world. Passionate concern grew from realization of needs and the inadequate response to these needs. They realized they "couldn't do it all." A broader view of issues developed, complex causes became evident, and implications of individual actions clarified. Leaders expressed frustration with bureaucracies, such as when AS denied training funds to USD directors who felt the importance of their program devalued. Others questioned the actions and attitudes of agencies or schools, to the extent they wondered whether community organizations wanted student volunteers.

One student wrote that the lessons he learned from those served in his project "could never have been taught in the classroom." A USD student became excited about advocacy as a dimension of her project, after attending a national conference. Evidence of increased knowledge about issues and social justice appeared in most SCU journals. SCCAP directors questioned whether they influenced coordinators to become "advocacy-oriented" and wished they had challenged them more.

Knowledge about issues increased as did awareness of how individuals could respond to problems. Through educating volunteers and recipients of service, students realized the importance of having accurate information. College students quickly learned how much "kids" in a drug education project

already knew from having been on the streets. Drug educators needed to understand the "kids" world and try to dispel misinformation they had absorbed. Participants grew in self-understanding and gained understanding of others' realities.

SCCAP students linked their experiences to classroom learning. They discussed broad issues and interrelationships among social problems, while USD students discussed more project-related issues, such as literacy. Several USD students said they gained greater understanding of the world. One leader saw community service as, "a chance to take things that I learned in the classroom and really apply them to real life. . .and to see how they held up outside of theoretical discussion."

Perceptions and Insights

To what extent did interaction with persons from diverse cultures within community service project environments shape new insights or behaviors?

Community service leaders immersed themselves in different cultures through interaction with those receiving service, agency or school staff, community leaders, and other students. Interaction with those served made the greatest impact on students. Of all the ways Permaul (1993) identified cultures, students focused primarily on their interactions with persons from lower socio-economic levels. Seeing the differences in physical environments between the participants' schools and those in service projects, between their own neighborhoods and a housing development, touched just the surface of their experience. Meeting children whose parent or parents struggled for economic survival, a homeless college graduate or an elderly refugee made social issues discussed in class or newspapers come alive. It came as no surprise that students learned most through relationships.

They spoke of "drastic changes" when confronting their stereotypes. A SCCAP coordinator acknowledged stereotypes she brought to her university experience, specifically about public school children, since she had never been in a public school. The childrens' interest in learning surprised her. USD students learned from populations they would never have met: children with "poor family situations and limited resources" who enjoyed simple pleasures; persons with AIDS who had positive attitudes; a single mom dealing with poverty which "imposes stressors on humans;" teens facing racial tensions and gang activity in their schools. Workplace literacy coordinators realized USD gardeners and dining service employees had not previously spoken to students because of limited English, not unfriendliness. Student tutors developed good relationships with the employees. They "give us big hugs as we leave each class and. . .are really interested in our lives and get concerned about [our] finals and making sure we are studying enough." SCU students grew to know children who took almost complete responsibility for themselves and wanted desperately to learn with almost no support from parents who worked several jobs. The interconnectedness of these problems prompted a student to call for a "cultural and spiritual revolution."

New insights about social issues generated much discussion, especially when working with service delivery systems. Participants from both programs realized their potential for harming those served, especially when mentors failed to keep their commitment to children who needed someone to trust.

The second most frequently discussed interactions focused on other college students. All leaders came with volunteer experience, but leadership responsibilities forced them to deal on two levels. Coordinators felt shocked by the "real world" and concurrently saw the need to prepare students for similar

disquieting experiences. Volunteers from both universities also confronted their own stereotypes, which exacerbated the leaders' personal struggles.

Leaders said they met a greater diversity of college students through community service than they would have otherwise. One leader realized no "typical" volunteer exists, when a student gave much more time and effort than she originally expected. Coordinators described their success in recruiting diverse student volunteers as "breathing personality and flavor into the program." USD leaders also mentioned interaction with students they otherwise might not have met, including students from a Mexican university. Students from the SCU Multicultural Center began "hanging out" in the SCCAP office during the second year of the study. Diversity among SCCAP leaders particularly challenged students to deal with cultural differences when conflict arose. Loden and Rosener (1991) included awareness of different cultures' approaches to problem solving as necessary for an effective, pluralistic leader.

Student leaders from both programs generally expressed negative perceptions of their peers. Volunteers infuriated coordinators when they failed to keep commitments. The list continued: students signed up for a project then did not "show up," others would only do "quick and easy" service projects like serving food in a soup kitchen; sorority members complained about the mandatory four hours of service each semester. Any mention of students doing community service linked with course credit or as reparation for breaking university rules proved to be critical. Student leaders thought these volunteers brought "different" attitudes and "bad" initial motivation. Coordinators wanted students who chose to become involved and wanted to give more than their time.

Volunteer recruitment frustrated the student leaders, especially since they experienced explosive new social issues awareness. They failed to see why students claimed they had no time. It dismayed them to contrast their personal changes with other students' lack of awareness about social issues, which caused disparity between themselves and the uninvolved students. Community service leaders from both universities described these other students as sheltered, unexposed, or possibly feeling "guilty" as members of the "upper class." They wondered if their peers were apathetic or caught up in preparing for "success." Coordinators highly esteemed reliable volunteers, but seemed to categorize students at both universities as being either caring or not caring.

Participants at both universities criticized agency and school policies and the liaison persons' attitudes toward volunteers. They questioned whether agencies really wanted student volunteers. In students' views, communication breakdowns occurred because agency liaisons failed to return phone calls. Several coordinators had developed good working relationships with agencies, but it took effort. Students often felt uncomfortable about how agency staff interacted with clients, for example treating elderly refugees like children or barring a school child from an after school project.

In their journals and interviews, students referred frequently to changes in their perceptions of others. Community service leaders interacted closely with very different populations from those that university students generally contact. Their reflections about these interactions stimulated questions, challenged stereotypes, caused changes in their attitudes and understanding. Students in all case study groups brought past community service experiences into their leadership year, then they interacted with persons from many cultures and received some cross-cultural training during the year. These

factors could account for the Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) pre-test and post-test scores being higher than the mean for students in the original study. All combined post-test scores increased after their leadership experiences.

No definitive conclusions can be made about the results, since participants had many other college experiences beyond being community service leaders. Students' previous volunteer involvement and community service leadership experience provided interaction with diverse cultures beyond what most college students experience. The increased CCAI post-test scores corroborate the students' self-identified changes.

Student leaders talked about feeling unprepared and confused. I did not think they saw themselves as naive, even when some students' expressed astonishment that others had many fewer resources than they. Acknowledging their unconscious stereotypes caused "emotional ups and downs." World views expanded after interacting "with people who are real and have problems," ant the students could no longer ignore social issues. Leaders from both programs began with different degrees of awareness and experience, but almost all felt they moved to new levels of feeling and understanding.

Community Service and Moral Judgment

Could any connection be made between the community service experience and change in moral judgment?

Participants felt challenged by the complexities of social problems and they perceived changes in their thinking and decision-making regarding these problems. SCU students saw more interconnectedness among issues than did USD students. Survey data indicated SCU students started volunteering earlier and brought more service experience as SCCAP leaders. These factors may correlate with their higher scores.

The Defining Issues Test (DIT) mean scores from SCU (pre-test, 52.43 and post-test, 52.32) were higher than standardized scores for both private, liberal arts (40.16) and church related colleges (50.49). USD scores (pre-test DIT, 44.77 and post-test DIT, 47.76) were mid-range between the two standardized scores and increased three points in the post-test. This could be seen as reinforcing all student leaders' perceptions that they cared more about issues than the average student, to the extent they became frustrated. One student observed, "People around us wear blinders. . .when you go into the community. . .it opens your eyes."

The DIT is based on Kohlberg's (Kohlberg, Levine, & Hewer, 1983) moral stages, with justice valued as the highest moral stage. Analysis of journal entries and reflection papers revealed that most SCU mid-year reflection papers made references to social justice. No USD journals contained reference to justice issues until the end of spring semester. During focus group interviews, students from both universities expressed deep concerns about problems addressed through their community service projects. SCU DIT pre-test scores were higher than USD scores, but the USD scores increased more than the SCU scores. This could coincide with SCU students having greater awareness of and commitment to social justice initially and with USD students having increased their awareness during the year.

Decision making and Citizenship

Was there evidence that students changed their approaches to decision making, including decisions relating to citizenship?

University mission statements advocated preparation for good citizenship (Barber, 1994; Rubin, 1990) but students in this study failed to make the connection. They identified many changes in their decision-making approaches, but only one student mentioned citizenship. Immediate decisions

loomed for students, such as whether to continue as community service leaders or, in the case of graduating seniors, what should be the next steps in their lives.

Students continuing as community service leaders worried about balancing community service with other commitments: maintaining academic standards, participating on a sports team, applying for graduate school. They knew the potential for burnout. Other students decided to take "time out" when deciding whether or not to continue as community service leaders, by studying abroad, relaxing more, or continuing service-related activity through an internship.

Almost 20% of the students, between 10 and 12 of the 56 participants, planned to apply for domestic or international volunteer programs like Peace Corps or Jesuit Volunteer Corps. One SCU director received a Teach for America acceptance letter just before her focus group interview. Others worried about juggling future careers and families with community service. They believed it was easier to serve the community during college because they understood the time demands.

Students from both programs saw future decisions as problematic. They talked about seeking nonprofit careers or choosing companies that value community service. A business major felt pulled between "making money or helping out your neighbor." A SCU student talked about her future television industry career. She loved the work, but wondered, "how can I sit there and put this stuff out. . .directly affecting people. . .and make this trash"?

A USD student discussed moving beyond a band-aid approach; a SCU student wanted to "get to root causes" and seek social justice. Another participant began to consider more sides of issues and felt "old and mature and business like." A less dramatic decision involved reading habits of a USD

student, ". . .before I got involved. . .I would say that's too bad and turn the page. But now, I'll read it and think something can be done about this." One student reported he could no longer ignore negative comments about social issues during casual conversations. Several felt they listened more carefully and contributed to discussions about social issues. These internal consistencies correspond with Chickerings' (1993) seventh vector of student development, the development of integrity. Almost all leaders articulated commitment to continued learning and talking about social issues.

Support for Learning and Development

What types of support did students identify as reinforcing their learning and development process?

Support systems differed between SCU and USD. SCCAP remained a student-run, independent organization throughout the study, such that student directors offered key support. USD directors, as part of Associated Students (AS), linked to the AS vice president along with over 30 other program directors. USD staff maintained pivotal roles as advisors to community service coordinators, while the SCU advisor met with the SCCAP director only once a week. Sources of support appeared less important than assurance someone would be available and caring.

During SCU focus groups, directors and coordinators praised the SCCAP reputation for building community and found it to be a reality. Directors inspired commitment and remained available. Coordinators supported one another. Student leaders spent much time in the SCCAP office, well beyond their office hours. Only the director mentioned direct support from the staff advisor during their weekly meetings.

The change in USD structure became evident in the two years of interviews. The first year, professional staff advised coordinators, while during

the second year, student directors or a graduate student advised them under guidance of a professional staff advisor. Coordinators definitely liked the change to student advising. However, they found that other coordinator(s), who jointly facilitated their project, provided the most support by balancing one anothers' strengths or weaknesses.

Students valued institutional commitment to facilities and training; such as, space, transportation for volunteers, and training opportunities to develop teamwork. SCU had three retreats, two overnight and a one-week training before fall classes began. USD had one fall weekend and one Saturday in early spring semester. During interviews, SCU students failed to mention their retreats and ways the university made community service easier to implement, but they talked about these during casual conversations. A large number of USD students talked positively about their team-building experiences. Strong institutional support had been part of SCU for years, while USD students observed increasing support during their community service experiences. Overnight planning retreats began the first year of the study, so students realized the difference these changes made. USD students acknowledged the diversity grant as funding a mini-van, a graduate student, and some training and programming. They appreciated having AS program funding and the Community Service Center as a place to gather.

Large group meetings held during the year received few comments from students at either university, except that these seemed to offer only exchange of information. Smaller group interaction provided meaningful opportunities for helping one another. For example, the director and seven or eight coordinators met weekly at SCU, or advisors met with coordinator teams at USD.

Higher education leaders advocated values education as an obligation, in order to prepare students for ethical lives and commitment to the public good (Bok, 1988; Newmann, 1990). Participants in this study recognized the connection between community service and their university's missions. All community service leaders clearly appreciated support from top administration and their university's valuing the importance of community service.

Recommendations

Potential for Transferability - Program Implementation

Applications for other institutions of higher learning are not assumed to be directly transferable. The study does not offer answers, but could help university faculty, staff, and students pose their own questions about funding community service leader support, including incentives for student leaders, staff advisors' time and responsibilities, and learning opportunities. Mutual expectations of agencies and universities also pose questions for everyone involved with university community service programs.

Funding Issues

Funding limitations can be expected as higher education budgets continue to tighten and grant funding wanes, further diminishing resources available for student community service programs. Information generated in this study may help institutions analyze ways to offer cost-effective support for community service programs and leaders.

The study addresses the types and effectiveness of the support student leaders receive. I sought student leaders' opinions. Student directors, who worked 20 hours or more, received a stipend or wages commensurate with the work-study rate. All of them needed to earn money during the academic year and could not spend the time needed without compensation. The federal 1994-

95 guidelines direct a minimum of 5% of work-study funds to community service placements. These include students developing projects and coordinating the work of other students who directly serve the community. However, students receive work-study funds based on need so that ineligible student leaders would need another funding source, presumably from university monies.

Both programs offered advising support, judged by students as necessary. The mature SCU program functioned very effectively with student advising. In contrast, USD professional staff provided extensive advising for student leaders during years of rapid program development. Approaches to advising depended upon the unique situation at each institution and the availability of staff time. Ways of providing continuity with community contacts and transition for new student leaders need to be institutionalized. Where students have no administrative support, a student develops a program and then graduates. Hence, the program wanes and the next student leader begins anew. Community service programs increase interaction among students, faculty and co-curricular staff, a goal for many universities. Barr, et al. (1990) perceived service-learning as providing new opportunities for both curricular and co-curricular programs.

Student leaders identified basic needs for a viable community service program. Space must be provided for any substantive program, they agreed. Transportation, leader and volunteer training, and supplies enhance program potential for growth. Leaders valued institutional commitment to student community service and direct link with the university's mission statements. Budget decision makers still must determine whether, and how much, to fund students' community service.

Linking Service and Learning for Student Leaders

Student leaders entered complex social systems new for them and the volunteers, where tremendous potential for learning existed. However, the students could bypass the reflective process, remaining in Argyris' (1982) single-loop learning. The community provided settings for experiences, but universities need to offer double-loop learning opportunities with reflection and reformation of abstract concepts. Kolb's (1984) learning model also integrates experience and learning with a strong focus on reflection. If student leaders do not reflect on their experiences, how prepared can they be to facilitate reflection for students in their program? So much learning could be lost.

Most USD leaders experienced structured reflections throughout the year and facilitated them for their volunteers with varying degrees of success. SCCAP leaders talked informally among themselves about their experiences, but agreed during focus group interviews that they had not asked themselves "in-depth questions." Most had not led reflections for their volunteers but had grown to value the reflective process. Leaders deserve exposure and support toward linking service and learning.

In addition to processing social issues and student leaders' own personal growth, community service offers real world opportunities to learn about leadership. As discussed in responses to research questions, a few students may have practiced leadership, but most felt they had just begun to define and recognize leadership.

Agency and University Partnerships

A student asked, "Why should it be so hard to help others?" Leaders questioned whether agencies saw student volunteers as helpful or even if they wanted to use them. When communication lines broke down, coordinators

blamed the agency contact person and some concerned students judged agency staff as insensitive or unfair. Students' emerging understanding of leadership may have contributed to their judgmental attitude, if they looked for leaders but instead saw people struggling with bureaucracies. Students recognized the complex nature of service delivery. However, the number of negative comments in journals and in interviews was noteworthy. They failed to move beyond their own frustrations and to respond to the challenges that agency staff faced.

Some well-established USD projects developed very collaborative relationships with agency or school personnel, although one-time project coordinators experienced difficulty in reaching agency contacts. Once they agreed on program arrangements, agencies seemed pleased with the service given their clients. SCCAP coordinators depended on existing agency and school programs for almost half of their projects, so the crucial communication occurred when volunteers were initially placed. Not so many SCU students seemed critical of agency staff, perhaps since they had less contact with them.

Saunders (1990) identified a philosophical disparity existing about student volunteers. Educators want to teach values of caring through service experience, while nonprofit sector administrators advocated that volunteers should have free choice in their decision to serve. Students need to understand that, although they enrich programs, their presence adds extra responsibilities for already overextended staff. Agency administrators reported experiences with student irresponsibility, and this had made them leery. Students saw some problems faced by organizations, but failed to understand the impact of understaffing and limited funding. A coordinator commented, "we can only achieve as much as the agency allows," then admitted other more immediate agency concerns could take precedence. With the increase in student

community service-learning, both students and agency or school staff need to increase understanding so as to clarify mutual expectations.

The Study - Potential for Replication

Students evaluated methodological approaches used in this study. Only minimal differences surfaced among the four case studies. Students found the focus group interviews most stimulating and helpful for reflection, almost "cathartic" according to one participant. A SCU student became aware of how she changed, and without the research, "I wouldn't have taken the time." USD students stated the journal writing made them think and sort out their experiences. Several SCU participants thought journals would have been helpful to recapture the year, but "flaked" or thought themselves as not the "journaling type."

Participants found the Defining Issues Test "hard" or ambiguous. Several stated they disliked any standardized test. Some students questioned accuracy of the self-judged Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory or felt the answers depended too much on their recent experiences. Several anticipated their post-test scores might drop because they would judge themselves more stringently. Some students did score lower on the post-test.

Overall, students thought the study helped them "look at ourselves" and think more critically about themselves and their programs. Student leaders stated they felt participation in the study influenced them to be more reflective. Student leaders may have stretched their thinking about their community service programs during the study.

Both SCU and USD incorporated strengths of the other program between the two years. Leaders from each university asked about the other university's program and I shared my understanding of the respective programs' strengths, student leadership at SCU and student-initiated projects

at USD. This may have supported already existing movements toward change which occurred the second year at each university, as USD changed to student advising, and SCU added more student-run projects.

Research Needed

1. As previously stated in the literature review, institutions of higher learning frequently include citizenship development in their mission statement. Giles, Honnet, & Migliore (1991) recommended exploration of gaps between stated mission and what actually occurred.

2. The connection between leadership and citizenship is open to additional research on effective outcomes for values development and social responsibility. Recent theory development by Giles and Eyler (1994) suggested connections among community service, student development, and citizenship.

3. Several researchers stated that volunteers generally felt restrained by agency coordinators (Ilsley, 1990), but I found no research specific to student volunteer or agency expectations or outcomes.

4. Differences exist in how universities provide support for students who lead community service programs, as existed at SCU and USD. Further research on the effectiveness and the amount of support needed could help universities look at cost effectiveness and program quality issues.

5. Participants in this study identified very different outcomes from giving direct service as opposed to being community service leaders. Increased understanding of scope and types of differences could help professional staff advisors. Methodology used in this study could be duplicated or used as a starting place for other research regarding the impact of community service leadership on student development.

Conclusion

Student leaders shared their personal volunteer "histories" during a "Leadership through volunteerism" seminar the year before I began this study. Story-telling provides wonderful opportunities for reflection. I saw animation and felt energy in the room. The students shared some of their insights about being leaders and their comments moved me to reflect about other anecdotal evidence I had heard. I realized that special things happened for students when they assumed responsibilities for community service projects.

I asked students if they would be interested in exploring the impact of being community service leaders. Their interest and my curiosity directed the path toward this study. Throughout the study, SCU and USD students shared their triumphs and challenges as they linked the campus to the community. These leaders experienced unique learning opportunities, as they explored their world through service, in quite different ways than occurred for other college students. These student leaders' voices can provide insights for advisors of other student leaders who engage their peers in learning about and contributing to their communities.

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APPENDIX A

CONSENT FORM

Leadership Through Volunteerism Research Project

I understand that the purpose of this project is to explore the impact of community service leadership on student development at the University of San Diego(USD) and Santa Clara University (SCU). The project will also attempt to identify the impact of different types of student personnel support that is given to student leaders.

I understand that the procedure for the project will be as follows. Two instruments will be administered, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) in the fall and again in late spring. A journal focused on the community service experience, with some directed entries, or periodic directed reflection papers will be written. Any entries that are bracketed will not be used as part of the research. All comments will be kept anonymous. Small group interviews based on the attached structured interview will follow the spring administration of the two project instruments. The interviews should take no longer than one hour. Participants will be invited to reflect upon their community service leadership experience and to evaluate how relevant they thought the instruments were toward addressing the purpose of this project.

I understand that no other student records will be used in this project and summaries of the resulting data will be sent to all participants.

I understand that both instruments raise issues regarding values and attitudes toward other people. The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory will include an opportunity for participants to set a personal learning plan.

This project will provide opportunity to better understand my experience through individual self-reflection and I will receive feedback about the group data that protects the identity of participants. This project will also explore the impact of student advising.

Participation is voluntary and I understand that I am free to discontinue participation at any time and that professional advisors will be available to process concerns that arise for me. Prior to signing this consent form, I will be given opportunity to ask questions about the project that will be answered by the project facilitator.

There will be no expense involved through participating in this project. I understand that the maximum time for my participation will be one academic year. All responses and information collected during this project will be kept confidential and any resulting data that is published or presented will be done anonymously.

I, the undersigned, understand the above explanations and on that basis, I give consent to my voluntary participation in this project.

_____

Signature of participant Date

_____

Location

APPENDIX B

Survey

Demographic background:

Year in school___ Age ___, Major _____,

Sex -M__ F__, Ethnicity_____(optional)

Type of project:

____ Ongoing- Number of hours volunteered per week._____

____ One time; ___several times a semester

Population served_____

Your volunteer 'history':

What do you think influenced your decisions to begin and to continue volunteering?

If your parents served as volunteer, was that an influence?

Please discuss your first volunteer experience. (age, what you did).

Describe your first volunteer experience in college.

What influenced your decision to assume a leadership position....

APPENDIX C

"The impact of community service leadership on student development"

Focus group protocol:

Introduction: Discuss confidentiality, invite additional comments after the group discussion, invite questions any time.

Purpose of the study: Your perceptions regarding the personal impact that community service had on you.

Overall sensing - first, general thoughts

Has your definition of leadership changed or been refined?
How has your community service experience related to your definition of leadership?

What skills have you developed or enhanced? What knowledge acquired? Attitudes changed?

How have your perceptions of others been impacted, including those people who received service? Of volunteers working with your project/s?

Do you think/feel that you have influenced others? Volunteers? Agency liaisons? Other USD students?

Are there decisions that you've made during this past year that may have been influenced by your being a community service coordinator? Personal or career goals? What you read?

What or who gave you the most helpful support?

After participating in this project: How do you evaluate the relevance of the research approach? The Defining Issues Test & Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory? The journal or reflection paper? The focus group interview process?

Do you have any other comments or questions?

APPENDIX D

Permissions to Use Questionnaires

CENTER for the study of
ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT

University of Minnesota

James Rest, Research Director / 206-A Burton Hall / 178 Pillsbury Drive / Minneapolis, MN 55455 / (612) 624 0876
Muriel Bebeau, Education Director / 15136 Moos Tower / 515 Delaware Street SE / Minneapolis, MN 55455 / (612) 625 4633

08-05-1993

Judy Rauner
USD-Volunteer Resources
Alcala Park
San Diego, CA 92110

Dear M. Rauner:

I grant you permission to use the Defining Issues Test in your study. If you are making copies of the test items, please include the copyright information on each copy (e.g., Copyright, James Rest, 1979, All rights reserved.

I hereby grant you permission to reprint the Defining Issues Test questionnaire as an appendix in your dissertation. This includes the stories and test items, but not the scoring system or directions for analysis. Please make sure that the copy contains the usual copyright information. I understand that copies of your dissertation may be duplicated for distribution.

Please send me a copy of the report of your study. Thanks for your interest in the Defining Issues Test.

Sincerely,

James Rest
Professor
Educational Psychology

COLLEEN KELLEY
HUMAN RELATIONS
CONSULTANT

Judy Rauner
Director, University of San Diego
Volunteer Resources
Alcala Park
San Diego, CA 92110

Dear Judy:

The purpose of this letter is to confirm that you may use the *CCAI* in your research. In fact, Judith Meyers and I are very happy that you are using it in your research, and we look forward to reading the results. This does not, of course, mean that we grant permission to make copies of the *CCAI.*

Sincerely,

Colleen Kelley

2500 Torrey Pines Road • La Jolla, California 92037 • (619) 453-8165 • MCI Telex 6503104602 MCI UW